Maritime Conference

on

Social Work

JUNE 17 - 20

1957

Sixth

Biennial

Conference

St. John's

Newfoundland

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"Human Values In An Expanding Economy"

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INDEX

Page

Address of Welcome—R. L. Andrews 7

Human Values in an Expanding Economy—R. B. Curry 12

The Influence of History on Social Welfare Problems—
A. B. Perlin 20

Expanding Frontiers in Social Welfare—R. E. G. Davis 27

Moral and Spiritual Values in Social Work—Rev. Shaun Govenlock 37

The Social Agency as an Employer—Joy A. Maines 47

Man and Industry—A Study in Consequences—
Professor John S. Morgan 50

Handcrafts in Rehabilitation—Patricia McLeod 57

Services to the Aged—Norman F. Cragg 64

The Handicapped—Dr. Keith S. Armstrong 69

Social Disorganization—C. G. Gifford 71

Adoptions :

1. The Agency and the Child—Harold Crowell 84

11. Ways and Means of Finding Adopting Homes—
Eugene MacDonald 90

111. The Adopting Applicants—Isabel McLellan 96

Juvenile Corrections :

I. Delinquency Problems in an Institutional Setting—
Sister Mary Esther, R.G.S. 99

11. Other Aspects—J. A. Grandy 106

The Retarded Child :

1. Day Training School for Mentally Retarded Children—Reginald Craig 114

11. Outline of Talk—Dr. Frazier Walsh 118

Interdependency of Law and Social Work—Janet Gillis 120

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FOREWORD

The sixth biennial Maritime Conference on Social Work was held in St. John's, Newfoundland, at Memorial University, June 17—20, 1957.

We have gathered for publication in these proceedings all available papers presented at the conference. Since some sessions were primarily on a discussion level, introductory papers only are published in these cases.

The purpose of the Maritime Conference is "to bring together persons interested in the Social Services of the four Maritime Provinces for consultation and discussion and to disseminate the results after deliberations". The first part of the purpose was achieved in June 1957, and by publication of these proceedings we hope that the second part may also be achieved.

Address given at the Opening of the Conference by the President

R. L. ANDREWS,

Deputy Minister of Public Welfare, Newfoundland.

It is a very great pleasure indeed to welcome so many delegates from Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland, to this capital city of St. John's for the sixth biennial session of the Maritime Conference on Social Work.

It was a great disappointment to us in Newfoundland when it became necessary to make it known at the Conference held in Fredricton in 1953 that it would be impossible to hold the 1955 Conference in St. John's because of the shortage of accommodation resulting from the renovation of the Newfoundland Hotel which was then being carried out and which, as far as anyone could foretell, could not be completed until after June, 1955.

It became apparent very early in 1955 that this decision was a wise one and we in Newfoundland appreciate the generosity and consideration of our friends in Nova Scotia, who made it possible to hold the 1955 Conference in Halifax. My one regret is that it was impossible, because of circumstances entirely beyond my control, to be present either at Fredricton or Halifax.

The purpose of this Maritime Conference is to provide an open forum for all interested citizens, as well as the representatives of private agencies and government departments, to discuss the problems of the people from the point of view of preserving human values in our rapidly expanding economy.

During the next three days there will be many opportunities for the discussion of such topics as the disabled, the retarded, the handicapped and the unmotivated, but I should like, for a few minutes at this opening session to talk about the large group of able-bodied employed—the wage earners—those who pay the taxes without which governments could not provide Old Age Pensions, Blind Persons' Allowances, Disabled Persons' Allowances, Veterans' Allowances, Social Assistance, Mothers' Allowances and Unemployment Assistance.

Financial assistance to relatively large groups of dependent persons on anything like an adequate scale, came to us in Newfoundland in one tremendous wave immediately following the entry of Newfoundland into Confederation.

On April 1st, 1949, citizens of the tenth province became eligible for Family Allowances, Old Age Pensions, Blind Persons Allowances, Unemployment Insurance Benefits and Veterans' Allowances. Within two years of Confederation the Newfoundland Legislature had passed the Mothers' Allowances Act, the Dependents' Allowance Act and the Workmen's Compensation Act, and early in 1952 the Old Age Assistance and Old Age Security had replaced the Old Age Pensions. Since then, the Disabled Persons Allowances Act has provided increased assistance to those who are permanently incapacitated, and the Government of Canada has agreed to share the cost of Unemployment Assistance. More recently provision has been made for the inclusion of fishermen in the Unemployment Insurance scheme.

In the other Atlantic Provinces as well as in the rest of Canada this process was a gradual one extending over many years. The experience of Newfoundland in the field of social welfare during the past eight years is, to say the least, unique among the peoples of the western world, and it is possible that the results of that experience, when they become better known, will be of some assistance to those who are or may be responsible for planning the development of welfare services in Canada, and should give students in sociology an ample field for research in the next generation or two.

Until 1938 there was no organized municipal government in Newfoundland outside of St. John's. No direct taxes were paid by the vast majority of Newfoundlanders for the basic services provided by every municipality on the Mainland, such as street lighting, garbage disposal, water and sewage services, fire and police protection. But in addition, health, welfare, and education services have been provided in Newfoundland by the provincial government largely by indirect taxation, whereas in most other provinces the municipal governments are responsible for these services although the provincial governments have shared the costs on an increasing scale. This form of administration created in the minds of a large number of people a false impression of the source of funds required to pay the cost of the public services.

One of the difficulties confronting those responsible for the administration of public services in Newfoundland during the first half of the twentieth century was the almost complete lack of statistical data. During the past eight years an increasing volume of information about Newfoundland and Newfoundlanders has become available. Furthermore, it is possible to make some comparison between conditions existing in Newfoundland and those in other parts of Canada.

Much of this information is important only to Newfoundland but some of it, I am sure, does have significance for those who live and work in the other Atlantic Provinces as well as in the provinces further to the west.

In 1949 when Newfoundland became the tenth province, it was found that a very high percentage of the age group over seventy years of age had not been able to make anything like adequate provision for their old age. The percentage of persons over seventy years of age receiving the Old Age Pension in the province of Newfoundland, when this pension was based on a means test, was 72.17 per cent. This percentage was very much higher than that in any other province. At the end of May, 1957, there were 4,800 persons receiving Old Age Assistance in the Province of Newfoundland. This number is approximately 52 per cent of the group between the ages 65 and 69. Again this represents a higher percentage than in any other province in Canada. For all Canada, approximately 21 per cent of the estimated population 65 to 69 years was in receipt of Old Age Assistance as at March 31st, 1956. It is rather frightening to think that so many of our older citizens in Newfoundland who began working at the age of fifteen or even earlier in the first decade of the twentieth century, were unable in the succeeding fifty years to make reasonably adequate provision for their old age. Surely a pension or some other adequate provision for old age is one of the motives which inspires all of us who are earning a livelihood.

With the introduction of Old Age Security in 1951 all Canadians who had reached the age of seventy became eligible for a universal pension at the rate of $40 a month without a means test. Many of us are now contributing towards the cost of this pension, recently increased to $46 a month, which we hope to receive from the Government of Canada at the age of 70 and although only those who pay income tax are contributing directly to its cost, it may be said, with some degree of truth, that all of us are at the present time contributing indirectly. However, it is the direct contribution which is significant. It makes us realize that we are not getting something for nothing. Many of those in Newfoundland who are now receiving Old Age Assistance think they are receiving something for nothing because they made no direct contribution towards the cost of this form of assistance during the past forty or fifty years.

In Newfoundland we now know that we have an unusually high percentage of mothers with children who are in need of assistance—widows who have lost their husbands because of the conditions under which they lived and under which they were compelled to earn a living during the past fifty years. Nine hundred widows are to-day receiving Social Assistance but no direct contribution was made by their husbands during their lifetime towards the cost of the assistance which they are now receiving. Furthermore, thirteen hundred mothers whose husbands are incapacitated are also receiving Social Assistance for which no direct contribution was made while their husbands were earning. Neither of these two groups of dependent persons can be criticised severely if they think they are receiving something for nothing.

Newfoundland, according to the 1951 Census of Canada, has a higher percentage of persons permanently unable to work than in any other province. Some of these were, of course, eligible for Old Age Security, Old Age Assistance or Blind Persons Allowances. Provision was made for others in our Mothers' Allowances Act but for the group between the ages of 21 and 64 who did not qualify for assistance under one or the other of these measures some provision was necessary. It was an unusually large group in Newfoundland and it was probably for this reason that in 1949 the Government of Newfoundland introduced a system of Dependents' Allowances. The number of dependent persons receiving allowances on March 31st, 1955, was 4,044. On April 1st, 1955, and during the subsequent months of 1955-56, most of these allowances were transferred to Social Assistance. Each of these persons must feel that he is receiving something for nothing as neither he nor those responsible for his support, made any direct contribution towards the cost of the assistance now being provided for him. There is a very grave danger that a system of allowances, pensions or insurance benefits in which the impression is given that no direct contribution is involved, will ultimately undermine the economy of the society in which it operates.

On the other hand, employees of the Government of Canada make regular contributions towards the cost of pensions and sick leave and in the pension scheme to which the employees of the Federal Government contribute some provision is made for the support of surviving dependents. Teachers in the province of Newfoundland and, in fact, in all the other provinces of Canada, contribute towards a pension and sick leave scheme, and in the Newfoundland pension scheme, at any rate, provision is made for the support of the surviving dependents of the contributor. In many other avenues of employment provision is made for a pension and sick leave on a contributory basis. The Unemployment Insurance legislation makes it possible for persons in certain forms of employment, to make regular contributions towards the cost of Unemployment Insurance benefits, although, unfortunately, if the contributor becomes ill before he files a claim he is disqualified. Now that Unemployment Insurance is being extended to include fishermen, it should become increasingly clear to a larger number of people that Government does not provide any of these forms of assistance without some contribution from the wage earner or indirect contribution from the taxpayers.

Before very long it is probable that a scheme of hospital insurance will be in force in six or more provinces in Canada and there is little doubt that all of us will be required to make some direct contribution towards the cost of that insurance. It is doubtful if the direct contribution of the individual will be sufficient to cover the total cost but it should form a substantial part of it so that each contributor will realize that this service is not being provided free of charge from an inexhaustible treasure chest. The people of Canada will then have the framework of a social security system which includes Family Allowances, Old Age Security, Old Age Assistance, Blind Persons' Allowances, Disabled Persons' Allowances, Unemployment Insurance, Hospital Insurance, Veterans' Allowances, Mothers' Allowances and Unemployment Assistance, these latter two being combined and administered as Social Assistance in some provinces.

The framework has been erected but the solid foundation of individual contribution is not complete. Eventually, if the economy of the nation is not to be undermined the existing welfare measures must be combined in one all embracing social security system, to which all wage earners will make direct contributions. Such a system should make provision for sick leave with pay as well as the cost of hospital and medical services, for those who are ill, unemployment insurance benefits to those who are unemployed, an adequate pension based on earnings and contributions at the age of 65 and a monthly income for the surviving dependents in the event of the death of the contributor before or after the age of 65.

Every wage earner should be a contributor to such a scheme, and it should be possible for a contributor to move from one part of Canada to another and from one form of employment to another and receive credit for his years of service and his contributions.

The 1951 Census revealed the fact that the percentage of children under fifteen years of age in Newfoundland is higher than that in any other province. This increase in the birth rate came in Newfoundland with startling suddenness in 1945. The number of births in this province has continued to increase—last year it was slightly in excess of 14,000. A similar although not identical situation exists on the Mainland. A new generation of Canadians, a new and much larger generation is growing up. If they are to acquire that independence of character which is essential for the proper development of the whole of Canada, not merely this part of the eastern seaboard which we represent, some more adequate means of making provision for the unforeseen and the unexpected as well as the inevitable, must become part of their way of life. When the boys and girls who were born in 1945 become members of the working force in four or five years time, they should begin to make a direct contribution towards the cost of their old age pensions, their unexpected illness and untimely death as well as the possibility of their being unemployed. Such a scheme should in time include all Canadians from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the forty-ninth parallel to the last outpost in the Arctic. Family Allowance payments are universal, so is the Old Age Pension scheme although in some of the more prosperous parts of Canada, additional provision is made over and above that provided by the Federal Government but the amounts paid to widows and orphans and to the able-bodied unemployed vary all the way from the reasonably adequate payments in provinces such as British Columbia and Ontario to the less adequate amounts paid in the Maritime Provinces and Newfoundland. If Canada is to mean anything to Canadians it must mean equal treatment for all citizens in all parts of the Dominion; equal treatment for children, for old people, for widows and orphans and those who are permanently unable to work, equal treatment for civil servants and loggers, teachers and miners, clergymen and fishermen, for if we are to be a nation we must become members one of another.

Human Values in an Expanding Economy

By R. B. CURRY

National Director Family Allowances and Old Age Security, Ottawa

In the first place I would like to give you the profound regrets of George Davidson, the Deputy Minister of Welfare at Ottawa, because of his inability to be here to address you to-day. I know that he was most anxious to come to St. John's but his duties have taken him elsewhere. I am sure that those responsible for the arrangement of your programme were keen on having the inspirational and thought-provoking type of address that you would naturally expect from Dr. Davidson. For my own part, while burdened with the responsibility of addressing this conference and endeavouring in my own way to explore the assigned subject, I feel my responsibility nevertheless lightened by my pleasure in again returning to Newfoundland. The associations which I have enjoyed over many years with Newfoundlanders and the memory of numerous visits to St. John's, particularly in the last eight or nine years, are sources of profound satisfaction.

May I congratulate all those responsible for having organized this conference. It is precedent-making in many ways. It seems indicative of the long strides that Newfoundland has made in social welfare. Certainly all those who have laboured here so intelligently and so diligently in creating and developing measures of social welfare and the organs to carry out their aims, have a great deal in which to take pride. Newfoundland in numerous directions in social welfare is setting the pace for her fellow Canadian provinces.

The subject assigned to me to-day—"Human Values in an Expanding Economy" is a challenging and a difficult one. There are so many aspects that one scarcely knows on which to focus attention. It would be quite possible, and perhaps rather desirable to spend some time in a definition of terms. Certainly the phrase "expanding economy" could merit elucidation and the term "human values" in itself may be given various shades of meaning. I think however, instead of indulging in exercises of defining the terms, it might be more useful to accept commonly held notions of their meaning. Rather obviously, the expanding economy to which we will direct our attention is the economy of Canada as of 1957 and the human values are those that pertain in general to Canadians to-day. The subject might then be paraphrased—"The Individual Canadian in To-day's Economy". I think it well to emphasize the Canadian as an individual because the human values of which we speak have little meaning aside from the individual.

The expanding economy as we look across Canada to-day is an accepted fact. It varies in degree in different parts of our country. It is spotty in places but as a whole, measured by many criteria, there is no doubt that one of the outstanding features of the times is not only the fact of the expansion of our economy, but the unusual rate of that expansion; a rate that has seldom been matched in any country at any time. I think we must admit that the expanding economy has many desirable features. Equally, there are many connotations that cannot be held as other than undesirable. We must be honest. On the whole, we have sought this expanding economy. In general we want it now and we want it to continue. The fact of a rapidly increasing trade, of a steady rise in the gross national product, of more things to buy, and of more dollars to buy them with, of what are ordinarily called high standards of living, are all features of our life toward which not only political leaders, financiers and business men strive, but which in general are greatly desired by people as individuals.

We cannot, however, view the nature of the economy and the speed of its growth without considerable concern about some of its side effects. It is like a massive ship going too rapidly through a narrow channel. The wake may be so great as to shake and even overwhelm established structures. To follow the figure further, if our expanding economy is the ship, its side effects are such that at times our social patterns are in considerable jeopardy.

It is interesting to recall that in Canada we have had of late a most useful report by a Royal Commission on Economic Prospects. It has endeavoured to see what we have economically, and forecast where we are going over some years ahead. We need equally to consider most carefully the social and human prospects and endeavour to forecast what they are likely to be if present tendencies continue.

What are some of the aspects of this expanding economy in Canada today? Among features too numerous even to list, several stand out. One is the sheer volume of our gross national product. It has passed thirty billions a year and by all forecasts is due to grow steadily in future. It constitutes what is commonly regarded as one of the significant indexes of national prosperity. Second—the great volume of goods and services represents a higher proportion per head of population, even if the population in itself has also increased rapidly. In other words, we have more per person of food, clothing, physical possessions, comforts, and those things for which most people strive. Third—and related to both the others, we, as Canadians, are held to possess at least the second highest standard of living in the world; again, of course, measured by a purely economic yardstick. Fourth—a feature of the expanding economy has been the enormous capital investment. Much of this investment has been from internal sources, but the proportion of imported capital has climbed steadily. This capital investment, whether in oil, gas, water power, pipelines, uranium, base metals, pulp and paper, St. Lawrence Seaway, or otherwise, all is designed in its turn to increase the volume of products available to the Canadian people. In certain ways we are the envy of the world with many more people employed than ever, with higher wages, more take-home pay, more purchases and increased savings. We seem to be sitting on top of a high prosperity that one would find it difficult to decry.

All these features and many others that could be canvassed in more detail with an exploration of the development of Kitimat in aluminum, of Elliott Lake in uranium, of Toronto for manufactures, of Shipshaw for power, of Labrador for iron, might easily carry one away with the glamour, and there is admittedly great glamour in the piling up of physical possessions. The wresting of mineral wealth from its sources; the conversion of great rivers into electrical power; the development of vast iron resources, and similar projects, are features of our economy in one way or another from Newfoundland to British Columbia. For some, this economic expansion represents a desirable end in itself. There are others, and I believe their number increases, to whom these gains are not an end but merely a means to an end. And that end is greater individual happiness, greater opportunity for self-realization, greater scope for the Canadian as a person. One of the demanding challenges for all thoughtful Canadians is how to turn this economic abundance into assets of the greatest possible benefit to each of our people.

It seems that a very pertinent question arises. Does the economic expansion, on balance, really increase human values? Is it in certain aspects, at least, harmful to those values? Let us explore some of its less desirable features. We see a number of features that cause us to reflect on the fact and on the speed of our expansion. There has been a marked move toward further urbanization. Fewer of our people in proportion live in the country. More and more are found in the cities. It is true that mechanization has made it possible to increase vastly agricultural products with far fewer people engaged in the process. Nevertheless, the fact of industrialization with its companion urbanization is one that must give us pause in our assessment of the results of economic expansion on humans. Many of the erstwhile values of country living, of self-dependence, of neighbourliness, of simple joys and wholesome pleasures, are endangered and even lost in the squeezing of people into narrow living spaces. Even the reaction against city dwelling that has been reflected in the growth recently of suburbia has its undesirable results because in many cases thousands of suburban homes, even though given space, still lack adequate services. Suburban dwelling, as presently seen in many areas, is not the complete remedy for the disease of urbanization.

With great economic expansion and the ability to own things, one of the features of our modern society is the rapid growth in the number of cars. For many people prosperity is indicated by the number of cars in the family—two-car and now even three-car families are becoming the vogue. But with these physical possessions we see quite inadequate highways, crowded roads, long traffic jams, the terrific expenditure of nervous energy, highway slaughter to a total that compares with our losses even in world wars. Even those of us who look at these problems casually must stop and wonder whether the possession of more dollars and the ability to own more things is going to go on and on in piling up our highways with more and more cars and taking more and more of our people to hospital and to the morgue.

Another feature of our economy is the growth of leisure time. We find we can produce vast volumes of goods in five days out of seven and shortly it is not unlikely that the normal work-week may be four days. This is all to the good if the remaining days are used to advantage. But it is all to the bad if those days lead only to boredom and to activities that are in themselves harmful. Certainly too many of our people with the leisure that has come to them of late have limited knowledge how usefully to employ their new-won freedom from work.

The expanding economy with its inflationary character has put a severe strain on numerous pensioners and on retired persons who had planned to live on a fixed income. For these people, to-day's 55c. dollar, and possibly to-morrow's 30c. dollar, means a struggle in which they cannot help but be the losers. Thus on one hand we have measures of prosperity to many and on the other hand we have the inflationary pressure which is a veritable nightmare to many others.

Among the aspects of the present time that give concern one cannot avoid mention of the high tension in living reflected in greatly increased incidence in mental ailments, in heart strain, and in related functional disorders. Whether these tensions arise from frustration, whether they arise from the greatly increased tempo of living, or from the fact that people are thrown more closely together, or that so many tend to become mere cogs in a vast industrial machine, the fact remains that these tensions are a mark of our age.

There seems also to be a lessened respect for law and for legal process. The growth of offences, both against the person and against property, is quite out of proportion to our growth in population and therefore must reflect certain social results of our total environment. This environment is conditioned very largely by our economic expansion. Are we successfully absorbing the expansion and keeping our historic respect for law and legal process? The growth of gangs, the undisciplined youth in too many of our cities, even indeed to the point of loss of life, reflect on the price we pay for our vaunted economic expansion.

Moreover, there is a general attitude of uncertainty among many people, even those who often are the immediate beneficiaries of the economy, with dollars in their pockets. There is a constant wonder about the future, even a fear of the future, that is oftentimes reflected in the crave for personal security. Possibly it is the only direction in which we can go with industrialization being so great a factor in our way of life. It is not only the insecurity on the part of individuals, but too frequently insecurity in the family as the basic unit of society. It will be hard for families to retain security with to-day's features—working mothers, commuting fathers, wide uncertainty as to parental authority and guidance that is acceptable and useful for children. Certainly family patterns have changed very greatly and the best of thought needs to be given to every possible means of securing family solidarity in the type of setting that is customary in our economy.

Many more features of to-day's economy that raise questions might be canvassed but perhaps enough has been said to illustrate the need for concern, the concern that man tends to become a trifling unit in a vast and complex economic machine which he has helped to create but which too often he neither runs nor understands. Now it would seem our question becomes this—"Can we have economic expansion with the virtues that are undoubtedly inherent in it, and with its features that are so attractive to so many people, without all of these unattractive and even frightening aspects?" Can we control or condition the pace of expansion so that we can digest it and use it in a wholesome way? On the other hand, can we control or condition the undesirable aspects so that the price paid for the positive values of the economic expansion is on balance reasonable? One must look at the efforts that are being made and which offer considerable promise in containing these unwanted effects. It is from the examination of these features that I believe we can derive considerable optimism concerning the future.

Let us canvass three areas in particular. First—there would appear to be a wide realization by industry itself of its responsibility to its employees as humans. Many of the new cities, and one thinks perhaps of Arvida, of Kitimat, and of the communities being developed in connection with the St. Lawrence Seaway, show foresight and intelligence in their aspects of town planning and their provision for the social and cultural life of the people who live in them. Whether the plans will work out in practice and whether these communities will function as they are designed to do is a question for the future. There is some danger that they will tend to stratify into economic levels and even into racial groupings and thus duplicate undesirable features of older communities, but it can scarcely be denied that the industries concerned are doing their best to avoid such results.

Then too, industries, both large ones and even smaller ones, are giving greatly increased attention to health and to welfare provisions within their own groups of employees. Pension plans, so-called fringe benefits, use of Blue Cross, and many other features show the concern of industry in these matters. Whether the concern is self-generated by wise industry, or comes from insistence by unions and employee groups, is a question beside the point just here. The fact is that these benefits are widely provided. Moreover, industry is giving greatly increased attention to better technical training and improvement in the skills of its employees. Industry's support of education in such fields as research and technology illustrates its conviction that its own progress and its contribution to the economic growth of the country are closely related to the improved techniques it provides for its people.

There has also been a considerable decentralization of industry and an endeavour to move into smaller communities or even create new communities. These moves, as yet only beginning, are useful indeed in helping to offset the worst features of urbanization with its consequent social dangers.

Beside the concern of industry it would seem useful to observe the realization by people generally of their public responsibilities for controlling some of the unwanted result of rapid economic expansion. The people of Canada, through our governments at various levels, have greatly expanded welfare legislation and have thus helped to obviate some of the dangerous social results of economic expansion. Public measures for meeting the challenges of mental distress and breakdown and of providing even more adequate facilities for treatment are noteworthy. We have seen in Canada of late marked growth in hospital facilities and now we have come to the beginning of programmes of hospital insurance through public measures. The attention given by the public to social measures for children, for the maintenance and improved security of the family, has helped in its way to offset those social strains on families already mentioned. Much remains to be done but the measures already taken serve to point the way. Government's concern with housing, with highway improvement, with traffic controls, with more adequate and more intelligent policing, all indicate a vast amount of public awareness to our responsibilities for preserving human values.

Perhaps one of the most noteworthy efforts of government, and here of course I refer particularly to government at provincial and municipal levels, is the vast investment in education, in teaching and in equipment rapidly being modernized to fit to-day's needs and to meet the challenges of 1957 and of the future. The strains on education are very great. The economic expansion has posed challenges unknown in earlier and simpler days, but it must be admitted that people generally are grasping their public responsibilities through education to help meet these social challenges.

Noteworthy of emphasis also is the realization by the public of their private responsibilities to help meet some of to-day's social challenges from economic expansion. One might mention the vastly increased social programmes of the churches. Certainly it would appear that never have the churches as a whole realized so fully that they as live and effective organisms play a most important role in preserving social gains and human values. The support by people through private organizations of numerous programmes for special needs, for example, the work of the many service clubs and fraternal organizations are indicative of these private efforts. I suppose nothing illustrates so well people's realization of private responsibilities, aside from government, for meeting these challenges as the support given to private social agencies. This is seen in their growth in number, in prestige and in usefulness and it is demonstrated perhaps most effectively in the marked growth in their financial support through community chests and otherwise.

One versed in the efforts of government, and especially one charged with administering government programmes of social legislation, should never fail to recognize and acclaim the efforts of people through private organizations, such as our welfare agencies. All these are indications of great effort to preserve human values in the face of the challenges posed by a rapid economic expansion. In some ways the matter goes in a circle. The economic expansion provides more dollars; it provides more desirable possessions in the physical sense; it provides startling social challenges; but these social challenges are in part at least met by the very dollars coming from the economic expansion. The real challenge seems to reduce to this—whether we be bankers, business men, industrialists, teachers, social workers, or industrial employees—we as Canadians tend to welcome the expansion in our economy. We would wish that it would be more general; that it would be less spotty; we would want all sections of our country to participate and we would want every community to show the results of a sound expansion. To be honest, we shall probably have continued rapid economic expansion, whether we want all its effects or not. Our scales of living, our aspirations, our range of expenditures, demand that it continue. It is probably quite irreversible. As long as we sit on top of a high proportion of the earth's wealth and resources, as long as our store of treasures from the forests, the mines, the rivers, the sea, continues, we shall seek and exploit such expansion. That being so, what must its price be? As people engaged and interested in human values, and particularly in social welfare, we must stop and ask ourselves certain questions. Do economic expansion and its benefits justify the price that we currently pay? Can we learn from older economies, or more rapidly developed ones such as that of the United States? Can we avoid their mistakes? In particular, can we control the pace of our economic expansion or is it automatic and self-generated? Can we slow it if necessary so as to give time for social adjustments? Can we make better use of its products? Can we employ the dollars that result, in other ways than just in cars, more TV's, more physical possessions? Will our people realize that mere dollars are not ends in themselves, that physical bigness, the size of our gross national product, that volume, are only means to ends? The true ends are far more fundamental. They include innate satisfactions, peace of mind, wholesome social attitudes, individual self-realization and happiness.

These seem true human values. Our effort to-day must be so to control the economic process that is a feature of our times and especially to so condition its course, its social side effects, that we can preserve human values and not merely get caught up helplessly in the on-rushing economy. In that effort no group of people have a more responsible role to play than the social scientists, the sociologists, social workers, and all those associated with them. This perhaps furnishes a suitable background for your thinking in the next few days at this Maritime Conference on Social Work.

The Influence of History on Social Welfare Problems

The synopsis of a speech given by the guest speaker, MR. A. B. PERLIN, President I. F. Perlin & Co., and Associate Editor of the Daily News, at the Conference Banquet.

INTRODUCTION

Welfare problems and their remedies vary with the individual history and tradition of a nation—Newfoundland's pattern of settlement is presented as an illustration.

Tracing the influence of history upon the welfare situation that now exists in Newfoundland, A. B. Perlin, guest speaker at the dinner of the Maritime Welfare Conference, said that much of the province's present has its origin so deep-rooted in the past that a good working knowledge of its history was essential to an understanding of current problems.

Few, he said, know much about the strange, colorful and tragic story of the island. In fact, not all who had lived all their lives in Newfoundland have studied it in true perspective. And the truly important thing, he added, was the remarkable story of a people who had stubbornly defied natural hardships and human repression to cling grimly and steadfastly to their bleak and hard-won perches on the shores of a neglected island.

This was a story, said Mr. Perlin, that had no counterpart in history, a tale that corresponded to the theme of the conference to the extent that the history of Newfoundland is one of human values and human endurance persistently and gallantly expressed through centuries of official discouragement and tyranny. It was a story that had its beginning with the first family that took up permanent quarters in the island.

THE FIRST SETTLERS

Tracing the history of Newfoundland from the time of its discovery by John Cabot in 1497 and the beginning soon afterwards of an international fishery, the speaker said that the first settlers were probably those who were left to winter in the island by the summer fishermen to protect the stages and stores that had been set up for future use against the native Indians and those other summer fishermen who might arrive earlier in a harbour in the spring and would immediately commandeer or destroy the buildings they found.

He described the establishment of the first colonies in the early part of the seventeenth century and the conflict between the settlers and the western adventurers which led to the Star Chamber rules of 1633. These set up the pernicious system of Fishing Admirals by which the first rude captain to arrive in a harbour each spring was to be the source of all law in that harbour. "I think," he said, "you may very easily imagine what kind of Justice these rough, ruthless fishing captains doled out to the unhappy settlers or any others who might cross their path or interfere with their monopoly".

DESTRUCTION OF SETTLEMENT ORDERED

Reference was then made to the regulations issued by Charles II under which settlers were forbidden to cut wood or inhabit within six miles of the shore. These would have been totally destructive if it were not for the fact that the summer fishermen had found that the settlers were useful and, by catching and curing fish, allowed the ship fishermen to take on more and more the guise of traders.

But in spite of this, naval officers on the Newfoundland coast were instructed in 1676 to burn every house and give the inhabitants a choice between returning to England or going to one of the West Indian colonies. This policy was cancelled out by the need of having a settled population as a check to the French who had established themselves in Placentia and were using that place as a base for operations by which they would possess the whole island.

Time and again, said Mr. Perlin, the French and their attendant Indians raided and destroyed the English settlements but after each raid the surviving colonists returned and rebuilt their humble homes. At length, the French were ousted from Newfoundland by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 but were given the privilege of concurrent fishing rights on more than one-half the Newfoundland perimeter, a privilege which was to plague the people of the island right into the present century.

FIRST NAVAL GOVERNOR

The settlers, said the speaker, found new hope in 1729 with the appointment of the first naval governor but these governors stayed in the island only during the summer and were constantly frustrated by the competing claims of the Fishing Admirals. The population, he said, grew but was never accepted. And he pointed out that the official instructions to a new governor in 1786 were that no title whatever to land or houses in the Island would be recognized by the British Government. Newfoundland, said these harsh instructions, was in no respect a colony and was never so considered in British laws which had rather the intent of restraining the subjects of Great Britain from colonizing that Island. Lord North had advised the governor that what the settlers liked roasted they were to receive raw and what they loved raw was to be given to them roasted. That, said Mr. Perlin, was the official attitude at a time when St. John's alone had a permanent population of more than three thousand persons. The governors were also authorized to destroy the fishing property of English settlers who interfered with the French fishery and, if necessary, to expel all English settlers from the French Shore. Not until 1811 was ownership of private property recognized for the first time.

Vigorous leadership brought first the grant of representative government in 1832 and ultimately full responsible government in 1855 but, said Mr. Perlin, it could be well understood why every Newfoundland statesman was compelled until very recent times to contend with the disabilities of the unhappy legacy bequeathed to them as the result of centuries of a strange and deliberate policy of retardation.

HAZARDS OF FISHERY

Describing the state of the people throughout this long era of repression and neglect, he pointed out the effect of British policy in producing the unusual situation of perimeter settlement. This had brought about a situation which still imposes heavy burdens upon the Newfoundland Government and increases immeasurably the financial and administrative problems of the departments concerned with the major social and public services.

The basis of the fishing economy was described and the hazards involved were emphasized. Mr. Perlin said that these dangers had never been more pithily or effectively described than in the verses of E. J. Pratt, who wrote:

> It took the sea a thousand years,
> A thousand years to trace
> The granite features of this cliff
> In crag and scarp and base.
> It took the sea an hour one night,
> An hour of storm to place
> The sculpture of these granite seams
> Upon a woman's face.

But to get on with my story, said Mr. Perlin, I should tell you that as the population grew the West Country merchants changed their methods. They ceased in time to be producers and became traders instead. Through their own branch stores or through small middlemen, they fitted out the fisherman in the spring, supplied their families with food and clothing during the fishing season, and took fish and other produce in payment in the fall.

The hazards were great. Sometimes the fishery failed. Some years prices fell below the economic level. And because the risks were high, the profits exorbitant on the trade goods. Some of the merchants were able to make great fortunes which allowed them to retire to England on the strength of low prices paid for fish and high prices charged for supplies issued on credit. But often, too, merchants suffered severely from the uncertainties of the sedentary fishery. If some acquired wealth, others went to their graves leaving nothing more behind than ledgers full of uncollectable debts. The experience of the people was one of tragic ups and downs, of a few years of relative prosperity and of more years of distress and privation.

RESOURCEFULNESS OF PEOPLE

Now I think you must be getting a pretty good idea of the grave and difficult social welfare problems that were built up under this kind of economy. The one saving grace was the frugality and industry and resourcefulness of the people in many places. After all, before the development of the mercantile system, the settlers had contrived to live under terrible conditions on inhospitable soil. They had learned how to survive. The pioneers could turn their hands to anything and they passed this knowledge on to their children. They built their own homes from lumber they had cut themselves. They grew much of their own food in their rock strewn gardens although the soil of Newfoundland gives up its yield only at the price of heavy toil. Some kept sheep and swine. The women toiled on the fish flakes in the summer and sewed and spun and knit in winter. They hovered daily over the heat of wood-burning stoves and grew old long before their time. They bore their children without benefit of doctors or nurses or trained midwives. Survival was possible but the price was high. In the lonely months of winter the men had too little to do and morale often suffered as the result of protracted and unavoidable idleness.

Can you be surprised that once the colony was recognized and a central government was established, people looked in bad times to an impoverished government for relief?

CALAMITIES IN ST. JOHN'S

The speaker then referred to the place of St. John's as a distributing centre in which the busy seasons of spring and fall were followed by terrible distress in winter. These conditions, he said, were aggravated by the recurrent calamity of fire in 1816, in the bitter winter of 1817-18, in 1846 and finally in 1892. These intermittent calamities, he said, and the frequent recurrence of depression in the fish industry caused great poverty and suffering which survived into the modern history of Newfoundland to leave a bitter mark seared deeply into the minds and souls of men who had not yet entered into old age.

He reminded his audience of the contrast that explains even more emphatically the difference to be found in the relative degree of the development of basic services in Newfoundland and the Maritime Provinces. For nearly seventy years before Newfoundland was given the right to an elementary form of representation, before her people could own land or cultivate it, before they had the right to legal existence, the Imperial Government was extending assistance to colonists in Nova Scotia. They were given free transportation, free land, agricultural implements and seed, roads and other facilities, not the least among these, education and health services. Think of this and think then of the fact that even eighty years ago the Government of Newfoundland could not appoint a policeman or magistrate on thousands of miles of its coast, because of the French fishing rights, that the only medical service on that French Shore was that which some kindly French doctor might offer, that neither schools nor even civil protection could be given the people.

EFFECTS OF ISOLATION

Where the communities along the Newfoundland perimeter were large by local standards, conditions were often tolerable. The inhabitants were certainly a great deal better off in many ways than the people of the crowded cities of England in the first forty years of the last century. In good outports, these places where a wise merchant encouraged the people to produce all they could, where there was land to cultivate, game to be taken for the larder, and enough people to have a school, people lived an independent and reasonably healthy life according to the standards of those times. But many had isolated themselves in one, two or three family communities, in tiny little coves, where they dwelt in the most appalling conditions of ignorance and neglect without benefit of clergy, education, medical help or guidance in any form. About the period between 1860 and 1870, less than a century ago, one of the best known of our native historians said this:

"Pauperism increased; reckless and indolent habits were engendered, and ere long nearly a third of the entire revenue of about $850,000 went in charity. So many were left in a condition of semi-starvation, whenever a failure of the fisheries occurred, that government found it impossible to discriminate between the applicants for relief. So general was the distribution of relief that a great majority of the industrial population soon learned to disregard the stigma of pauperism. They claimed public assistance as a private right".

These were the cumulative effects of retardation, of the ban on the use of land, of dependence on a single-industry economy of a mercurial nature, of the dispersal of the population into 1300 communities scattered along a perimeter of 6,000 miles and of the inability of government to extract from a poor population enough revenue to do more than meet the minimum requirements of administration.

LIMITED PUBLIC SERVICES

There were no public services in a real sense. A small number of country doctors did what they could to minister to the health of a scattered people in a land without communications. But until about 35 years ago, there was only one general hospital in Newfoundland. It's bed capacity was about 150 persons.

As recently as 25 years ago, there was no public health service worthy of the name, the educational system was producing better results than the people had a right to expect for what was spent on it, and welfare consisted of poor relief and a miserable pittance of an old age pension based on a means test.

But it was not to be thought, said Mr. Perlin, that there were no bright spots in the situation. Courageous statesmen had carried their fight for Newfoundland's rights even to the steps of the Throne, had resisted French encroachments with success, and planned a railway across the island when revenue was under a million dollars a year. And even in the terrible depression of the thirties, when one-third of the population was on a relief ration of six cents a day, he thought the most striking fact of the times was that two-thirds of the population showed their fundamental independence by contriving somehow to get along without relief.

PROSPEROUS IN 1949

He referred to the confederation negotiations of 1895 which followed the desperate situation resulting from the collapse of the Newfoundland commercial banks in December, 1894. Canada refused to accept more of the Newfoundland debt than could be computed by applying the then per capita debt of Canada to the Newfoundland population and for the sake of four million dollars confederation was delayed by more than 50 years. If, said Mr. Perlin, the same terms had been offered in 1948, Canada would have been required to make available to Newfoundland a capital sum of the order of $350 million.

Admitting that Newfoundland had had its vicissitudes, and might have them again, the speaker said that in 1940 the island began its advance into the greatest and most prolonged period of prosperity her people had ever known. By 1949, when Newfoundland became a Canadian province, her people had acquired the highest living standard in their history, a better diversified economy and the ability to make a free choice on the constitutional issue. But, said Mr. Perlin, there were good historical and economic reasons for the gaps in social services that had yet to be bridged. Their real development had not begun until 1935 and, in spite of remarkable advances in a short time, there was still a long way to go to catch up with what might be regarded as the acceptable minimum standards of equivalent services in the poorest of the mainland provinces. By comparison with 1932, education, health and welfare were costing twenty times as much today but the rapid growth of population had made it difficult to do much more than keep up with quantitative means.

THEME OF CONFERENCE

Coming now to the theme of the conference—human values in an expanding economy—Mr. Perlin said that this needed some qualification in its relation to Newfoundland where primary industry was still the mainstay of the economy. What we have to consider, he said, is human values in relation first to a rising standard of living and next to new standards of comparison.

You see, he said, before Confederation we stood alone. We knew very little about the kind of public services you had in Canada. We were under no obligation to make comparisons. We were a tiny national entity, living in relative isolation on our rugged island far out in the Atlantic. Our criteria were those we made ourselves and then, of a sudden, we became a province of Canada, and new criteria were immediately established. We had earlier been groping our way towards a better standard of living but we had a long way to go. The impact of the Canadian social services struck us with almost revolutionary force and tremendous adjustments were required.

The speaker then described in some detail the nature of these readjustments and their effect on the thinking of the people and of the new demands for public services to which they gave rise. He discussed the theme of the conference in its relation to the special problems of Newfoundland and particularly to its relation to welfare policy.

In conclusion, Mr. Perlin said, human values in any kind of society or economy should not change for the worse so long as all the agencies that help to form the thinking of the people do what they can to encourage a full appreciation of the things that are truly important in life and living. The principle of self-help is still sound, he said, and it should be preached more fervently and more effectively. Welfare could be made too scientific or politicans could make it a system of bribing the people with their own money. It had to be rationalized. It must aim at providing a minimum standard of living for the helpless and the weak. It must put a floor under living standards as a basic form of social security. But it must not take the place of productive effort and it must strive by constructive education to preserve the independence and the integrity of the individual.

"The very nature of Newfoundland history and economy has created", he said "a very special, a very difficult and a very costly welfare problem. But, the inherent nature of the average Newfoundlander rebels against anything that suborns or tends to corrupt his independence. The main thing is that the problem of welfare must be placed before the people in its right perspective".

"Certain human values may tend to change in an expanding economy. But basic spiritual values should not change. This is, of course, still an imperfect, a very imperfect world. But it has been moving forward and civilization has been extending its horizons in spite of all the temptations that might divert it from a progressive course. And that is happening because the average individual is at heart, a decent, God-fearing person. The task of those engaged in any form of social welfare is to co-ordinate every useful force and influence to the end that fundamental decent human values will remain constant regardless of the changes that may take place in the economy or physical environment".

Expanding Frontiers in Social Welfare

By R. E. G. DAVIS

Executive Director, The Canadian Welfare Council

Address given at the Luncheon Meeting.

I. Stephen Leacock, in one of his essays, gives advice on how to prepare a speech. It is very simple really, he says. You just jot down what occurs to you. But then he adds: "The jotting is easy; it's the occurring that's difficult". Most of us who have tried our hand at public speaking appreciate the point of Leacock's remark, but there is another problem he didn't mention, namely, how to deal with a big subject in a short time, which is my situation today.

The best I have undertaken is that of relating social welfare progress and policies to the problem of an expanding economy, which is a considerable assignment for half an hour's talk. I shall do the best I can with it, but I hope you will not be disappointed if I merely sketch the main outline, leaving it very much to you to develop the implications.

II. Let us look first at this matter of our expanding industrial economy. There is no question that our economy is expanding, even in your Atlantic provinces with their special regional problems, where according to the Gordon Report the real income per capita in recent years has increased faster than the average for the rest of the country. Granted that prosperity isn't evenly distributed across the country and that some groups have experienced more of it than others, the fact remains that we are living in boom times with all the benefits in the way of employment and earnings which such a situation brings. Not only that, but, if we can depend on the experts, this upward trend in our economic affairs, barring war and ignoring temporary fluctuations, is likely to continue for a number of years to come--till 1980 at least says the Gordon Report.

This is all wonderful, of course, a far cry from the days of the depression, and yet, such is the fate of mankind, it has created a number of new problems which thoughtful people in many fields are coming to view with increasing concern.

1. One of these is inflation, which strikes hardest at the people least able to defend themselves: the very poor and people on relatively fixed incomes, including old age pensioners and the recipients of various form of public assistance. One of the symptoms of this situation is the growth of installment buying with the result that at the present time well nigh half of Canadian families

are in debt and few of us can lay by very much for old age or special emergencies. Another is that housing, available on an economic basis whether to rent or buy, is beyond the reach of a growing sector of the population and, as we all know, the cost of medical services is now such that the average family can't afford a prolonged illness or even normal hospital care. It comes to this—that while everyone is working, many families eke out an existence at or near the poverty line; and it is the experience of all of us that what we gain by wage or salary increases is taken away almost immediately through the higher prices we have to pay for the things we need to buy.

2. Another serious problem for Canadians is created by the rapid growth that is taking place in our population. Not only is the total number of people in Canada increasing, but rising birth rates since the war and falling death rates mean that we have more babies and more old people absolutely and relatively than ever before. The over sixty-five group has doubled in the past twenty years and now runs to well over a million people.

It requires little reflection to appreciate the implications of these changes for social planning and services. Just to keep pace with a 2 per cent annual increase in population is a task in itself, but on top of this is the fact of the bulge at either end of the scale affecting the two groups, the very young and the old, for whom welfare programs are of the greatest importance.

I haven't mentioned the factor of large-scale immigration. Eight per cent of our population has come from other countries since the war, and these people need help in fitting into the pattern of Canadian life.

There are other things to observe about the population figure. One is the tendency for people to move around more in response to the demands of industry. What a mockery such mobility makes of the residence regulations attached to many of our welfare programs. Suppose one could not work in another community, or send his children to school, until he had lived there for from 1 to 5 years. But it is precisely this kind of restriction we put on access to financial aid.

3. Even more striking as a feature of the current scene is the drift from rural to urban areas. Fifty years ago, only 2 out of every 10 people were urban dwellers. In 1951, the ratio had risen to 6 out of 10, and the Gordon Commission's forecast for 1980 is 8 out of 10.

All of us are familiar with the impact of this change upon our towns and cities—the ugly, unhealthy, spreading places they have become, the pockets of slums that have been created, the tangle of mean streets and dilapidated dwellings. Fortunately, current efforts at community planning are attempting to correct the mistakes of the past and not a moment too soon. There is an immense amount of planning and re-planning, construction and reconstruction to do before we have the kind of communities that will be adequate to the needs of modern living.

4. However, the disruption occasioned by expanding industrialism extends far beyond the effect it has on our physical environment. Much more intimately it touches and disturbs the accustomed pattern of family and neighbourhood life. In a pre-industrial age these primary groups were the most important formative and controlling influence in the development of the individual, but today in the large city a good deal of strength has gone out of them. The most obvious aspects of the current situation come quickly to mind: the rootlessness of families separated from kith and kin, perhaps transferred every few years to a new community; mothers going out to work, in many cases to the deprivation of their children; fathers away evenings or absent from the city on business, and emotional stress in many families stemming sometimes from these factors but aggravated as well by the pace of life generally.

There is a suggestion also that industrial change is beginning to affect the roles and status of the sexes in modern society. Professor Richard Titmuss of London University, speaking in Toronto recently, had some interesting things to say along these lines based on the changing situation in England. According to him, the past fifty years have brought a revolutionary enlargement of women's freedom, particularly in the home. The main factor here is the decline in the size of the family which since 1900 had fallen by some 60%; families of one, two, and three children instead of six, seven, or more. This means that, whereas fifty years ago the typical mother spent fifteen years in child-bearing and nursing her children for the first year of life, today the time so required is not much more than four years.

Besides, one has to take account of longer life expectancy today. In 1900, by the time the youngest child had left school, the typical mother was in the middle fifties, with only a few years left to live—a situation somewhat analogous to that of many species in the animal world. Today, most mothers have largely concluded their maternal role by forty, and at this age can look forward to another thirty-six years or almost half their total life span. The result is that many more married women now have greater freedom to choose what they shall do. With the father working, they are not forced to seek employment. If they do so, it is less to make ends meet than to give their family a higher standard of living. Actually the figures show a striking increase of such women in gainful employment. In 1946, they comprised 22% of all women at work; in 1955, the percentage had risen to 48%.

Consider by contrast the state of men in England (Professor Titmuss was speaking of the manual worker and not the middle class and professional groups). In the modern factory where operations are routine, the manual worker's earnings do not increase with age and experience. A boy can earn as much as a man since skills are readily acquired and, indeed, the middleaged worker may find that, on account of technological advances, the need for his particular skill has disappeared. "Old skills are continually being downgraded, divided, or made redundant".

Several things follow from this: a feeling of uncertainty and insecurity on the part of the industrial worker; a weakening of the motive to "get on" vocationally, and a preoccupation instead with the adequacy of immediate pay and fringe benefits; a lowering of the worker's status in the community and even in his own family; and further, since his life is dominated by the machine, the clock, and the assembly line, the development in him often of submissive and unenterprising attitudes. As someone else has said in this connection: "The ideal workman in modern industry is a highly abnormal creature".

How does a worker, conditioned to these ways, discharge his role as husband and father? It is too soon to say definitely, says Professor Titmuss. In some instances, he may carry over into his home the docility acquired in the factory and yield to his wife and children the responsibility for leadership and initiative. In others he may react in an authoritative and dominating way, expressing at home resentment suppressed in the shop. Or, which is what Titmuss thinks is happening, he may find new satisfactions in his home and the business of family life generally. "One has only to notice", he concludes, "the way husbands do the shopping, take out the laundry, play with children, and unashamedly push prams to realize that family life in industrial Britain is changing".

5. My final item in this catalogue of emerging social problems has to do with leisure. The work week is coming down, for many people if not for all of us, which raises the question of how we are to use the additional time available to us. It is interesting to note that some 40% of the funds distributed by community chests across Canada is now devoted to the support of recreation and allied services which indicates an alertness to the changing situation. There has also been a substantial growth in public facilities and progress, all the way from the C.B.C. and the National Film Board to neighbourhood playgrounds and community centres.

However, much more remains to be done in an age when increasing automation is almost certain to shift the balance still further away from work and in a direction of leisure. We need to help people acquire the interests and skills necessary to fill this spare time with satisfaction, and this means much more than passive entertainment, or even participation in sports and games. Our society, for all its advantages, will be a poor thing unless an increasing proportion of people devote themselves to cultural and scientific pursuits and as well to social and civic responsibilities.

These, then, are a few of the effects of industrialization on the rapidly changing Canadian economy. Some of them, of course, are more evident than others and none of them, perhaps, have made the impact on your Atlantic region that they have elsewhere. I am reminded in this connection of another statement in the Gordon Report which you will know better than I how to appraise: Many people in your province, it states, and I quote: "......would not exchange on any terms their more peaceful way of life and the comparative ease and quiet that go with it for the noise and bustle and tenseness which one associates with living in large metropolitan areas like Montreal, Toronto and Vancouver". If this is true, and it very well may be, much of what I have said would need to be modified considerably in its application here. Yet, that the trends and problems I have mentioned do exist and are developing at however uneven a pace across the country as Canada becomes more and more industrialized, I think there cannot be any doubt.

III. Let us turn now to consider what all these changes imply for welfare planning and particularly for social policy. I have said something about this already, but it may be helpful to pull it together under a few main heads.

1. The first thing to emphasize is the importance of including social as well as economic objectives in Canada's national policy. It used to be assumed that industrialization would automatically bring about the enhancement of human well being, but the fact is this does not happen. You can have a type and pace of economic advance that will actually disregard social need and may, if unchecked, trample human values blindly under foot. I don't believe the people of Canada want to pay this price for a continually rising national income.

There are many corollaries of such a balanced socio-economic policy, but one of particular relevance to your region is that, whatever economic considerations may suggest, we must see to it that no part of this great country shall be allowed to fall below a reasonable standard of income and human welfare generally.

2. We have to provide more adequately against the risks created by a wage-earning economy where the individual, unlike his rural ancestor, may at any time be deprived of subsistence through unemployment, illness, disability or old age. The way to do this, of course, is by rounding out and improving our existing social security structure and here, in spite of outstanding achievements already, much remains to be done.

We are only on the threshold, for example, of helping the average family with the costs of hospital and medical care.

We have no public program at all for dealing with the other aspect of "health insurance" namely, wage loss due to temporary illness, although the recent national sickness survey revealed that 40 to 50 million man-days are lost annually through this cause—more than the total number for which Unemployment Insurance benefits are normally paid.

There is no provision of benefits except after a means test for widows and other survivors in families where the breadwinner is taken, such as exists, for example, in the United States under Old Age and Survivors Insurance.

Finally, housing is an area in which increased cost to the individual citizen must compel more vigorous government action and larger expenditure of public funds.

These are serious gaps in present provisions. However, there are other defects as well, notably the unsatisfactory state of our public assistance programs in almost all provinces. Such programs, as a final guarantee that no one shall lack the necessities of life regardless of the cause of his distress, are an essential part of any well conceived social security system. The actual situation is that some groups of people and some social needs receive attention while others are excluded; there are, as I have said earlier, restrictive policies of admission based on residence, and the amount of financial aid provided, not to speak of the way it is sometimes administered, leave much to be desired from both the standpoint of individual need and of human dignity.

3. We have been speaking of financial aid, but there are lacks also in the wider area of welfare services where money often is not the problem at all. Tangled relations in a family, a child who is neglected or illtreated by his parents, people with physical or mental handicaps, an unmarried mother, a family where there is sickness and need of nursing service, a boy who has run foul of the law, an old man or woman who is lonely—these are part of the social backwash of our times and the means for dealing with them are often sadly inadequate.

At the present time there are less than 50 family service agencies under private auspices across the country, most of them with too little staff and too high caseloads to do a careful job of family counselling. There is an urgent need to extend these services into more communities whether under public or private auspices and to make them readily available to all classes of the community. Casework—what a pity we haven't a better name for it!—is not something to be reserved for families that have disintegrated or are on the verge of disintegration. Its more constructive use, which must receive greater emphasis, is further up the line before discord and maladjustment develop into disaster.

I should like to underline the dearth of homemaker service and household aids of various kinds that strengthen the home against the threat of breakdown. Today, for lack of such help, children have often to be removed from their families when the mother is ill or otherwise unable to carry her regular responsibilities. I mention children, but lack of home service is also a problem for other groups of the population. One of the things that is impressive about the situation in England, for example, is the extent to which old people are able to carry on outside institutions because of help of this kind that is available.

I am happy to add that interest in homemaker services is currently growing in Canada. At the Annual Meeting of the Canadian Welfare Council held recently in Ottawa, it was reported that 40 agencies rendering such service are already in existence, which is an encouraging start. What we need now is to accelerate this vital development and to see that the funds necessary for its support are available from public as well as private sources.

4. The next point I'd like to emphasize is that increasingly we must place greater emphasis in our programs on rehabilitation and prevention. This is necessary, if for no other reason, to ensure the community gets the best value for the large sums of money now expended on welfare services, but there is a human consideration, obviously, as well. Not long ago in a Winnipeg paper I read an account of an old woman who had died and was buried by the city. For 14 years she had been on relief and a figure was given to show what this had cost the taxpayer—some $7,000 as I remember. The tragedy was that this woman did not need to remain so long on relief. The crippling disability from which she suffered was not incurable. Thousands of people have overcome it and returned to productive lives. The article went on to point out that rehabilitation and not mere relief was the keynote of the new policy of the Winnipeg Welfare Department, now, incidentally, under the direction of Cliff Patrick, a former member of the Canadian Welfare Council staff.

The need for this more constructive approach to human need is nowhere more dramatically shown than in a study, with which many of you, no doubt, are acquainted, conducted several years ago in St. Paul, Minnesota, by Bradley Buell and a group of survey specialists. This study, based on statistical examination of all families in receipt of health and welfare services, revealed that less than 6% of the families in St. Paul received more than half the services supplied and, further, that this hard core of multi-problem families, as they were called, were known to as many as 30 out of some 90 different community agencies. Surely if these findings apply elsewhere, and the 6% figure has been confirmed by three subsequent studies in other communities, they raise serious questions about our present methods of work. Putting it positively, they suggest the need there is for social agencies to work more closely together and for social workers to relate their efforts systematically to those of other professional personnel in the fields of health and emotional problems. Such collaboration will not, of course, work miracles. But at least it should ensure a more thorough-going and scientific diagnosis of the needs of individual families and a program of treatment and rehabilitation as complete as the situation permits. In Canada, while there is no survey data to go on, we do have knowledge of families that after three generations are still receiving help from social agencies, which points up sharply a failure to come to grips with the real problem or lack of community resources to deal with it.

5. Implicit in what I have been saying here is another point which I have only time to mention and that is the need for a much larger supply of qualified staff to man our welfare services. The Canadian situation in this respect, as most of you must know, amounts almost to a crisis and there has been the suggestion of a "crash program" in an attempt to meet it. Certainly a variety of methods have got to be employed: vigorous recruiting programs to attract into the human service professions more of the brightest and best of the young generation, enlarged financial support for our schools of social work, including yours here in the Maritimes, greater emphasis on in-service training which is such a noticeable feature of your provincial program in Newfoundland, and of basic importance, a more careful classification of welfare positions so that we may make the wisest and most effective use of our limited supply of professional people. Even so, there seems no escape from the conclusion that, in this relatively new and expanding field with its rising standards of competance, the problem of adequate staff will remain with us for some time to come. It is fortunate and timely in such circumstances that a month ago there was established in Canada a special body, the Canadian Council on Education and Personnel for the Social Services, whose job it will be to work at these matters continuously by every means in its power.

6. However, more staff is not the whole answer to our personnel problem. Equally throughout the whole welfare field there is the need for a closer partnership between professional workers and the lay citizen. In earlier days the burden of welfare services, as we all know, was carried by a small band of devoted workers, actuated by religious motives or in the spirit of 'noblesse oblige'. Today with vast numbers of people involved, as tax-payers and contributors and also as beneficiaries, we face a very different situation. Social welfare has now become the concern of everyone and it is imperative that this fact be recognized if our agencies and services are to be attuned to the spirit of the time.

The implication is that, both as social planners and as social workers, we must reach out more than we have been doing up to the present to the many groups in the community which, although they may not speak our technical language, share our basic concerns and have a great deal to teach us. One thinks, for example, of the churches, labour unions, service clubs, and citizen organizations of many kinds, as well as the people who use the agencies' services. Such groups have got to be brought in, their opinions sought on what we are or should be doing and their cooperation and support encouraged all down the line.

Nor is this something only for the voluntary agencies. I am thinking of the larger use that might be made of citizens' advisory committees in relation to particular government programs right down to the municipal level. Such committees, as you know, have been used extensively in England, but somehow in Canada the idea has never spread very far.

One of the almost inevitable tendencies of public administrators, however well-intentioned, is to become insulated from the community, bureaucrats in that sense, and to look at life less in broad daylight than through the narrow casements of their departmental interests. Citizen committees such as I have in mind, made up of alert and interested volunteers, would help to correct for this myopia. They could also do much to lift government programs above the level of routine and to humanize the procedures by which they are administered. And there will, of course, be a by-product too. For it is through the actual involvment of citizens in welfare programs, governmental and voluntary, that we shall build the public understanding and support we must have if further developments are to take place.

There is just one other word before I sit down. I have been talking about the social problems created by our expanding economy and some measures and techniques for dealing with them. All this is, I believe, related to our conference theme but it does not, perhaps, go to the heart of our concern for the preservation of human values to an industrial age.

We need to see clearly what the problem is. It is not that our fundamental values are outmoded. The experience of the world in recent years should make us more confident than ever that such virtues as love and acceptance, respect and consideration for others, mutual aid and fair play, honesty and social justice, still stand. Our predicament is rather that in a simple society these virtues found natural expression in the intimacy of family and neighbourhood groups and that we have not yet found satisfactory ways of relating them to the vastly altered conditions of society today where life is fragmentized and where contacts with people are not only impersonal but may extend half way around the globe.

What we need basically in this situation is a new type of democratic citizen who will take a deliberate and responsible interest in human welfare at home and abroad, who gets greater satisfaction out of cooperating than competing with his fellowmen, and who is willing to discipline his personal desires and ambitions for the sake of the common good.

But how are such citizens to be developed? The task, which must begin in our homes and schools, will involve the cooperation of many professional groups—educators obviously, and the clergy, along with psychologists, psychiatrists and sociologists who have added greatly to our knowledge of healthy social living. What I want to emphasize particularly, however, is the important contribution that the social worker is in a position to make. Educators, whether they wish to or not, tend to deal with individuals apart from their social settings; social scientists are usually removed from the field of practice; other groups deal with particular aspects of human need and behaviour. But the social worker, by the very nature of his functions, is concerned with the whole person to his total environment, and has had practical experience in his day-to-day work with helping people develop patterns of living that will not only better serve their individual needs, but enable them to relate themselves more constructively to others.

It would be a mistake, of course, to claim too much for social work at this stage. One must admit that many of its insights are still imperfect and its methods less refined than could be desired. And yet it is difficult to see how any attempt to produce the kind of citizens we need can be effective which does not draw upon the experience we have had. Teaching, preaching, propaganda, take us so far but not far enough. The real task is one of reconstructing the attitudes of individuals and groups throughout society, and as to how this can be done, our young profession already has authoritative knowledge to offer.

Moral and Spiritual Values in Social Work

By REV. SHAUN GOVENLOCK,
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I. THE SCOPE OF THE TOPIC

1. Evidence of soul-searching on part of the profession

There is undoubtedly some deep meaning in the fact that meetings of professional social workers tend more and more frequently to include in their programmes questions related to moral and spiritual values. There must be something significant, too, in the tendency for discussions among small groups of thoughtful practitioners to gravitate towards inquiry into our **deeper** and **more far-reaching responsibilities** towards the clientele we serve. Among those for whom social work is more than a mere job, there is a more insistent concern about the ultimate effectiveness of much that we do—as if the alleviation of material stress or the untangling of disabling relationships, however worthy and necessary this be, were somehow an unfinished thing. Perhaps there is a disquieting perception among some—or many—that the best skills, techniques, and resources of our profession fall short, somewhere, of reaching the ultimate sources of man's temporal distress and needfulness.

These and similar questions **do** preoccupy many social workers to-day. It would admittedly be an exaggeration to suggest that such soul-searching is becoming anything like an epidemic within our ranks—but there are unmistakable symptoms of its presence at every level of social work practice.

2. More than a desire to bridge a gap which has grown

A superficial diagnosis of the condition might conclude that what is really being experienced is no more than a regressive homesickness for the simpler times when social work was mainly the form of the Church's official corporal works of mercy—when whatever efforts made to alleviate community ills and personal misery were the traditional monopoly of religious congregations and authorities. While we today may have no particular affection for the nineteenth century stereotype of the "lady bountiful" or the proselytizing dispensers of moral indignation, we may dimly suspect that these prototypes of modern social work had access to certain strengths which have somehow been filtered out of our mid-twentieth century formulae. We fully appreciate that the advances of sociological and psychological understanding have immeasurably enriched our ability to deal with social pathology. We feel no compelling urge to forego any of these gains in favour of casework by precept or community organization by sacred eloquence.

But with all our scientific assurances and skills, many of us cannot escape the impression that there is a further dimension of our work which we no longer fully command and which nevertheless is decisively related to the success of its eventual outcomes. This feeling, I suggest is much more than a simple nostalgia for the days of "social uplift" under eccelesiastical patronage.

3. More than a pragmatic wish to exploit a community resource

I choose to think that it is more, too, than an artfully-motivated desire to draw maximum advantage from a long-recognized institution for community influence. Whenever I listen to an address or read a paper on the church as a partner in social welfare, I am alert to discover whether the objective is purely to remind workers that good public relations and wise exploitation of all community resources urge that we should not neglect this strategic source of collaboration. Such a principle of operation is undoubtedly a valid one in our professional philosophy—but it misses the **real** point almost as widely as that which painstakingly reckons with religious values only as one cultural component, admittedly important, in diagnosis and treatment planning.

If the roots of our self-examination go no deeper than this, then the profit to be derived from the exercise may be real—but they will be meagre indeed. Because it will leave quite intact the essential question of the **intrinsic** significance of the moral and spiritual dynamics in the shaping of personal and social destinies.

II. THE ROLE OF SOCIAL WORK IN THE CONTEMPORARY SCENE

1. The problem of defining the purpose of social work

Now, this line of reasoning brings us rather abruptly up against an enormously difficult and basic question—i.e. what, indeed, is the real and legitimate function of social work as a professional discipline? Even though I wear a Roman collar and find myself discussing a religiously-connected topic, it must not be anticipated that I shall perform a miracle by successfully answering this fundamental and persistant query. But if we are not yet able to answer it definitively, we are at least obliged to continue **asking** it, and finding whatever partial and provisional responses our wisdom and experience may dictate.

There are those who refuse on principle to attempt a definition of social work or its function, on the premise that we are dealing here with an essentially dynamic, evolving thing. Any definition would be a limiting, paralysing impertinence. When I am told this, I always find myself slipping back with Lewis Carrol and Alice to behold the Cheshire Cat gradually disappearing from the branch of the tree, until only the **grin** remains. A pure grin is a very impalpable thing. Accident without substance is a very idle thing. Direction without intention is a very pointless thing. Intention without understanding is a very irresponsible thing.

Somewhere along the line we must arrive at a tentative agreement on what social work properly proposes to undertake, at least here and now. And as with many other similar questions it is perhaps easier to begin by negation than by affirmation.

2. Social work cannot be "all things to all men"

First of all we might perhaps agree that social work should rid itself of any Messianic complex. It cannot successfully undertake to be "all things to all men". This way lies frustration—and ulcers of the stomach! Yet there are not few among us who are disposed to assume such global responsibilities—from the reconstructing of international harmony, to the elimination of the last vestigial complex in the individual psyche. It is both a tribute to the earnest dedication of the social work profession, and a commentary on its relative immaturity, that so many of us feel that all of man's needs must somehow find their satisfaction under our auspices. To resist this notion is not, of course, to deny that social work **has** a valuable contribution to make at **every** level of human interchange. But it remains a **contribution**, and does not become a monopoly.

The crucial point, therefore, becomes the question of what **is** this specific **contribution**, and **how** shall we make it. This, I believe, is the most urgent issue confronting our profession at the present moment. Within its answer will be contained the secret of how we shall appropriately relate to other established agencies of human betterment, to other human service professions, and to the infinitely varied children of Adam who turn to us for aid.

3. The integrative function in a divisive social economy

If, at the risk of oversimplifying a very complex matter, I should say that the principle task of professional social work today is that of **putting** together or **keeping** together the human person in the midst of a social process which seems more and more designed to divide and subdivide his personal unity and integrity, I would have identified what appears to me to be the essential function of our discipline.

It is paradoxical indeed that at the very time when we are hearing proclaimed most insistently the twentieth century gospel of the rights of man, man himself is finding it increasingly difficult to maintain and even to discover his feeling of significance and personal control in a society which imposes ever more artificialities upon the business of living.

This is neither the time nor the place to analyse in detail the innumerable consequences which industrialization and urbanization have brought down upon the individual in terms of radical dislocations of primary human institutions. Man's relationship to his mate and his children, to his intimate neighborgroup, to his altar of worship, to the products of his labour and craft, to the larger society of his compatriots—all these and many other pivots of personal security which have served him well since the dawn of history have—by and large—been undermined by the inevitable logic of a technological age. And we have only begun to see as in a glass, darkly, what further challenges will emerge from the nucleus of the atom. If there is any justification whatever for the familiar designations: "This Age of Anxiety", it is to be found in the anguished cry of so many: "Who am I?", "Why am I?".

It is precisely here that I see the providential relevance of the social work profession. Not, surely to supply the **ultimate** and **final** answers to these questions. This is clearly the province of the philosopher and the theologian. But it is the province of social work to help man to re-discover and secure that priceless sense of purpose, value, and meaning in what he is and does amid these ever more numerous and ever more conflicting pressures in the specifically temporal and social order. The social worker, it would seem, has the vocation of being a generalist of human nature in a society which has surrendered to the specialists. I wonder indeed whether this may not be the unconscious substrata of the current emphasis on the generic as against the specific in technical social work theory.

4. Social order and human values

Viewed from a slightly different perspective, it may be said that the over-all moral responsibility of social work is to stand and act as a witness, in the community, for the principle that society is for man—and against the principle that man is for society. This is why social work as we conceive it is basically incompatible with a totalitarian ideology such as communism. It is, in the last analysis, a moral concept of the value of man which must justify our professional ideal—an ideal which insists that however complex become the patterns of living, the institutions of society must be kept in harmony with the genuine interests of the human personality, that the rights and essential prerogatives of the person shall not be sacrified to the tyranny of technological efficiency, legalistic convenience, economic advantage, or authoritarian whim.

If social work has a distinct reason for being, it will be found in this dedication to the notion that man's relationships with his personal and social environment shall remain in harmony with the fundamental dignity and aspirations of his human nature.

III. THE SPIRITUAL AND MORAL FOUNDATIONS OF SOCIAL WORK

1. The ideological assumptions of the Profession

Having said this much—and it is admittedly quite a mouthful —it becomes necessary to look very closely at these slogans which have become the common coin of our profession—the perpetual insistence on "the value of the human person", "the essential dignity of man", "the non-condemnatory approach", and so on. These, we like to believe, are the axioms of our discipline. What we have not perhaps sufficiently realized, is that not one of these first principles of professional practice can long be successfully sustained apart from a spiritual and religious philosophy of life. A thorough-going materialism, whether frankly declared or disguised under the mask of sociological, phychological, or historical determinism can go only so far in justifying the position that the interests of the human person have inviolable priority over other temporal and social goals. Beyond this point, the materialist must become more dogmatic than the believer.

2. The theology of social work principles

I would go much further than this, and suggest that these very principles which we acknowledge as axiomatic in our practice are in fact little more than direct implementations, in the social and behavioural order, of Christian doctrinal teaching by which our occidental political and social philosophy was shaped and inspired. It would be too far from our immediate subject to examine how the very theory of a **democratic** society must have its roots in a spiritual and moral definition of man, though I consider this to be rigorously so, and not unrelated to our theme.

Let us rather consider what profound new insights are obtained when we connect some of our day-by-day professional assumptions, with the religious and moral compass-points from which I believe they ultimately derive.

We speak, for example, "of the inviolable worth of the individual person". This is a noble ideal indeed—and one in the absence of which we have seen and are seeing in our own generation the most ghastly outrages perpetrated in the name of social progress. But upon what foundation does such an ideal rest? If man is no more than the sum total of his chemical components, then we are the sentimentalists and the others are the social realists. If, on the other hand, man is infinitely more than this, if he has a destiny beyond this span of years, if he has within him a spiritual principle, a soul, for whose final well-being an infinite price has been paid—then we may truly speak of his inviolable worth.

Or we speak of "the non-condemnatory attitude". This, strangely enough, is frequently viewed with alarm by otherwise knowledgable religious people, who suspect it as a cloak for moral indifferentism or a crude surrender to the Id. And yet, among all our principles I find none which echoes more searchingly the truest dictates of our moral and religious tradition. It begins with the truth that I am not my client's better—that we are both the heirs of our original parents' fall—that we each bear within ourselves that proclivity to error and unreason. It proclaims also our religious conviction that no man can be coerced into virtue or manipulated into paradise. And it denies the social worker the luxury of playing God by acknowledging that rectitude of life is the fruit of divine grace, to be given when God finds the soul prepared. Sanctity is not something which can be ensured by edict or censure, but rather something that takes possession of a man when the dispositions of nature have paved the way. It is the social worker's role to take away, by art and understanding and **acceptance**, the material, the emotional, the interpersonal, the social stumbling blocks which clutter the human being's pilgrimage through this life towards better things. There is no better authority for our principle of acceptance of the client as he comes to us, than the words of Him who, when the last scornful accuser had slipped away, raised up the woman taken in adultery: "Daughter, are there none left to accuse thee? Neither do I accuse thee. Go in peace".

There is such a higher rationale for **each one** of the basic laws about which our professional ethic and skill are cast. It would be burdensome to consider in detail why our belief in the right of every individual to the means of decency is eventually inseparable from a theology which teaches that redemption is for the weak and strong alike; why our conviction in the necessity of social justice and mutual aid is bound up, not with a devious pursuit of indirect self-interest, but with the vastly more sublime precept of spiritual brotherhood which in my theology I would call the Mystical Body of Christ.

3. The futility of rootless philanthropism

The foregoing remarks are certainly open to commentary from many quarters. To some they may seem no more than a quasi poetic essay in plausibilities. To others they may seem an elaborate attempt at rationalization in favour of vested interests. To others they may seem no more than an eruption of metaphysics in an area which has been adequately taken over by scientific positivism.

I must insist that they are more than any of these. It will always strike me as more than somewhat strange that we should have to remind social workers, of all people, of the essential spiritual component in their profession. And yet, in a somewhat larger context, it is worthy of note, that at the present time it is the **physical** sciences—the nuclear physicists, the biochemists and the rest—who are more and more frequently voicing the necessity of a rediscovery of moral and religious values, while the human and behavioural sciences seem to be sinking ever deeper into the strata of factorial analysis, cybernetics, and logical empiricism. I do not believe that social work, for all its present and future need of richer scientific certitude, can rightly allow itself to be seduced into this latter direction.

Social work must maintain its commitment to the integral human person, and to whatever dimensions of that human whole may have an effect upon the individual's capacity to deal more successfully with the challenges of living in this uncertain and complex social area. We have long since agreed that this eventually becomes a matter of revitalizing the interpersonal relationships which sustain personal security and social well being. But as Father Swithun Bowers said very pertinently in an address delivered in Boston last year, if religion is essentially man's relationship with the divinity from which he springs and towards which he moves, and if this, as seems inevitable, influences profoundly his relationships with all else which surrounds him, it would seem a dereliction of professional responsibility for social workers not to be at least mindful of this direct and indirect area of the client's relationship needs.

The fact, however,—and I might say the tragic fact—is that this intimate connection between religious and spiritual values on the one hand, and the content of day-by-day activities and relationships on the other, has largely been lost sight of in contemporary scientific, political, and social thinking.

It is not merely that religion has become a compartmentalized aspect of living. It is rather that we, without fully realizing it, are living on borrowed spiritual and religious capital. The most alarming symptom of modern man's crisis is that, while engaged in a death struggle for the defence of certain human values, he has too often lost faith and confidence in the theological principles upon which these values are founded. In fact, we have, more often than not, actually **forgotten** these principles, while supecting more or less consciously the weakness of the latter-day ideologies which have prayed upon them like parasites. It is not surprising, therefore, that we speak of "This age of anxiety"—but I firmly believe that, before all else, it is an age of **metaphysical** anxiety.

4. The implications of our duty to the integral man

Thanks be to God that it is not the specific task of the social work profession to take upon its young shoulders this cosmic burden. But the fact that it **exists** cannot be excluded from our attention if we honestly claim to approach community problems and personal social ills with a comprehensive focus. It may, to be sure, pose delicate and difficult questions for us when we come to decide **how** in the course of our professional practice, due weight and importance shall be given to the religious and spiritual needs and interests of individuals and groups—and to the moral issues which are the intrinsic product of man's communication with God.

But we cannot act as if the problem did not exist—and we must equip ourselves with the understandings, the attitudes, and the skills required to deal **appropriately** with the religious and moral, no less than with psychosexual, bio-physical, and socio-economic dimensions of our client's difficulty. To heed these latter but ignore the first suggests only three things!

(a) that matters of religion and morals are a potato too hot for us to handle, or

(b) that for some reason religion and morals are in no sense our business, or

(c) that the less said about religion and morals the better, because they are an impertinent anachronism in this scientific age.

The first attitude, I should say, is a sad commentary upon the worker's professional maturity; the second is at best an arbitrary narrowing of the profession's field of vision; the third is a counsel of despair, for it annihilates the significance of man.

5. Personal Ideology of the Professional Person.

Here, precisely, is the nub of the entire question insofar as it concerns the worker on the job. It would be idle to expect that **every** practitioner will bring a positive and conscious religious ideology to his professional tasks. To the extent that he fails to do so, of course, his scope for adequate empathy with his client—whether individual, family, or group—is proportionately diminished. But we have a right to hope that at very least, he shall not systematically disregard the religious and moral preoccupations or needs of his case, or harbour a persistent blind-spot in their regard. On the other hand, the practitioner who has mature and enlightened convictions about the powerful spiritual potentialities in his own and his client's lives vastly expands his range of deep identification, and at the same time finds access to new reserves of confidence and worthwhile-ness in his labours.

IV. THE RELATIONSHIPS OF PROFESSION TO CHURCH

1. Essential differences with unique interpendencies.

The danger in all that I have been saying may lie in supposing that, **if these things be true**, then professional social work somehow becomes a branch of evangelism—that the social worker, in his **role** of **social worker**, becomes something of a religious counsellor. Nothing I can think of would do a greater disservice to both religion and the social work profession than this confusion of rules. Despite their unique interdependencies, their proper and specific functions remain fundamentally distinct.

As a professional discipline, social work assumes responsibility for **man** in his earthly estate, using methods and resources proportionate to earthly effects, for the purpose of insuring **earthly** benefits for the individual and for the community.

In its primary role, the Church assumes responsibility for man's **soul** in its earthly **state,** using methods and resources proportionate to **supernatural** effects, for the purpose of insuring **eternal** benefits for the individual and for mankind.

If **social work** recognizes that moral and spiritual factors enter deeply into **earth-bound** problems, it must so deal with these factors as to permit the achievement of desired **social** outcomes.

If **the Church** recognizes that material and social factors enter deeply into **spiritual** problems, it must so deal with these factors as to permit the achievement of desired **supernatural** outcomes.

Social work, **as a professional discipline,** is not called upon to save souls. This is not its competence. But its **practitioners, as believing people,** will not be oblivious to the eternal destiny of those they serve.

The Church, **as an agency of supernatural life,** is not called upon to reconstruct the city of man. This is not its competence. But **its representatives, as socially-minded people,** will not be indifferent to the earthly condition of those to whom they minister.

2. The Problem of collaboration.

The net conclusion of all the foregoing is surely that social work and the Church should be working together in a relationship of utmost harmony born of reciprocal need. Let us not be so naive as to pretend that this is typically the situation. All too often, if there is not an elegantly disguised mutual suspicion, there is not much more than a casual nodding acquaintance. Far too seldom indeed does there exist that truly dynamic teamwork which would be required to make what I have said anything more than pious philosophizing.

Without attempting to give you any gimmicks or trick formulae to get the Church and social work working hand in hand, may I merely suggest a few of the basic pre-requisites for fruitful collaborations:

First of all it would seem to me, we have to do something about the problem of simple verbal communication. If social work has sometimes been rightly characterized as a "culture within a culture", the same can be said with due modifications about the world of ecclesiastical affairs. Each has developed a technical terminology (which some would call a "jargon") that effectively renders intelligible dialogue an almost lost cause. Perhaps social workers are the greatest offenders in this regard, but they are surely not the only culprits. When we patiently advise the local clergyman that Mrs. McGillicudy has not yet established a sufficiently meaningful relationship with the Worker to permit us to move in on her latent hostility towards Junior, it is not to be wondered that our clerical listener reacts with a somewhat incredulous, "hmm!" On the other hand when the Rev. Pastor advises us that Mr. Fogerty "needs a good talking to" to correct his unwholesome devotion to the local bookmaker, or that the Grogan family is a particularly "deserving case", it is forgivable, if not commendable, that the worker wishes the thing might be put a little more "diagostically".

Terminology, of course, is really no more than symptomatic. Even if the schools of social work and the theological seminaries added a course in comparative semantics to their already over-crowded curricula, we would not automatically overcome all the stumbling blocks in our common pathway. What is perhaps more needed is a relatively better **understanding** on either side of what the other is **really trying to achieve.** Only thus will the occasional spasms of scepticism cease to encumber our collaboration. Only thus will the mechanisms of defence intrude less frequently into our dealings with one another. Only thus will the profession be less likely to reproach the Church for unwarranted insistence upon moral value. Only thus will the Church be less likely to censure the profession for arbitrary secularism.

How this quality of improved mutual understanding can be brought into being is probably too large an issue to be dealt with adequately here. In summary, I believe it must await a spiritual maturation on the part of the social work profession and on the part of social work practioners, no less than it must await a scientific social maturation on the part of those who formally speak for the spiritual and moral values in modern life. This undoubtedly has implications for the educational programmes on either side—and I have the impression that the challenge will be and is being met.

The fruit of such efforts will be not only better **understanding,** leading to more effective **communication,** but a heightened **respect** for one another between these two agencies of human betterment. I cannot think of an outcome more ardently to be hoped for—because it can only result in richer advantages to the individuals, the families, the groups, and the communities which, each in our own way, we have assumed the mission to serve.

The Social Agency as an Employer

By JOY A. MAINES

Executive Secretary, Canadian Assn. of Social Workers, Ottawa.

A Social Agency may be a Government agency supported by taxation or a private agency supported by voluntary contributions from the public at large.

The Government (or public) agency is established by law to carry out specific functions—to administer social legislation whether at the Municipal, Provincial or Federal level of Government. Their operations are restricted by legislation and by regulations. The social workers employed by public agencies are selected (at Federal and Provincial levels at least) by the Civil Service Commission at the request of the particular department concerned. Before accepting employment the social worker knows the salary scale, terms of employment and benefits to which he is entitled. He benefits according to the regulations established for all civil servants—e.g. vacation leave, sick leave, health protection, superannuation. He is a public servant in every sense of the word but employed to serve a section of the public for whom social legislation has been enacted—e.g. Veterans' Affairs, Indian Affairs, Northern Service, Family Allowances, Old Age Security, Rehabilitation, Child Welfare, Reform Institutions and Public Assistance.

The Private Agency, on the other hand, is non-governmental. Private Agencies are established by citizen groups who have become conscious of an unmet social need in the community and have organized to provide services to meet that need. The Board of Directors of the Agency is legally and morally responsible for the quality of service given by the Agency, for its management and its financing.

In our discussion to-day we have been asked to devote our attention to the responsibility of the Board of a Private Agency as an **employer.**

One of the basic principles to be observed is that quality of service is in direct ratio to quality of personnel employed to provide the service.

In organizing a private agency, the Board will have stated its purpose in its Constitution. This purpose will be borne in mind in determining the kind of qualifications to be required of staff, the number of staff required.

It is wise for the Board to appoint a Personnel Committee which will draw up job descriptions, outline qualifications required for each job and submit these to the Board along with recommended salary schedules. When the Board has approved these, the Personnel Committee calls for applications for the position and makes recommendations to the Board as to acceptance of applications.

The **key** position in a private agency is that of Executive Director. Once an Executive Director is selected by the Board, he or she should share in the selection of the remaining staff required, as all staff will be directly responsible to him or her. The Executive Director should be ex-officio a member of all committees and should be present at all board meetings as an advisor to the Board. If the Agency is a larger one, employing a big staff, it is helpful to the Personnel Committee and to staff, to have a staff representative meet with the Personnel Committee, with the consent of the Executive Director.

Just as public agencies arrange for holidays, sick leaves and other benefits for staff, so must a private agency. It is the responsibility of the Personnel Committee of the Board to prepare written statements of the Policies (in addition to these formerly mentioned re job descriptions, qualifications required and salary schedules).

Personnel Policies should include statement re vacation allowed annually with pay, special leave with pay (attendance at conferences, illness of a relative, death of a relative) sick leave with pay (number of days per month, whether sick leave may be accumulated from year to year) tenure of office—(method to be used in resigning or releasing from the position, written notice, reason, time requirement). In social work it is important that a social worker give at least one month's notice and preferably longer, as he must complete his records and should also prepare his clients for another worker taking over responsibility. By the same token if he is being released by the agency, sufficient notice should be given so that he can not only complete his work satisfactorily but also find another position for himself. Many private agencies require workers to drive cars in order to provide service. In such cases the agency should assist with insurance coverage and allow a mileage rate for use of worker's car.

Group Hospital Plans should be considered for staff.

Retirement Plans are becoming more and more necessary. Private agencies historically have not paid high salaries. Some workers have reached an age where the agency would be better served by younger persons yet the agency feels morally obligated to the older worker who has been unable to provide his own retirement. Some of the problems that arise in relation to retirement plans are as follows:—

1. Should they be voluntary or compulsory for all staff?
2. Should the plan be such that agency and worker both contribute?
3. Should the worker be able to withdraw his own payments

plus interest when he leaves? Should the worker be entitled to any percentage of employer's contribution?

4. Should plans be transferable?

5. Which type of plan is preferable—Government Annuity or Private Insurance Company?

It was pointed out that it is the agency's responsibility to prepare an honest budget regarding the needs of the agency and to interpret these needs honestly to the community. Salaries represent service to clients—good service can be given only by quality staff who should be adequately paid for their work. If the community does not provide adequate funds for the agency's operations, staff will remain loyal if they know that the Board of Directors has honestly presented the case. The Board of Directors usually knows the community, as a whole, better than social work staff know it, but both the Directors and Staff have a responsibility in interpretation to the community.

Board staff relationships should be such that each has a high regard for the special competence of the other, which results in teamwork to fulfill the purpose for which the agency exists.

Man and Industry—A Study in Consequence

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We are just now coming to some recognition of the problems which modern industrialization has created for the human beings who are now irrevocably committed to large-scale industrial production as the motive force of our economic and social life. As E. H. Carr says in his analysis of "The New Society",

> "(Two) of the basic problems which confront the new society (are) the problem of the planned economy and the problem of the right development of our human resources. The problems are basic in the sense that their solution is a condition of survival. The old methods of organizing production have collapsed and society cannot exist without bringing new ones into existence . . . ."[1]

Thus concern with the human consequences of industrialization is not confined to Canada, although since we started our major conversion to industrialization later than most Western nations, and have expanded our industrial economy at a faster pace than many other nations of the world, we are likely to see the consequences in their more exaggerated forms. The **Duke of Edinburgh's Study Conference on the Human Problems of Industrial Communities Within the Commonwealth and Empire** was an attempt to explore these problems on the broad base of experience from the newest country of the commonwealth, Ghana, to the oldest member, Great Britain. Writers, like Harrison, Brown[2] and C. Wright Mills[3] have explored various phenomena which are directly related to the impact of highly organized industrialism upon the political and social aspects of living in the new society.

We are primarily interested at this Conference in Canada as we move into this new world of industrialization; in particular, we are interested in a two-year study experiment known as the **Round Table on Man and Industry**, organized by a group of people associated particularly with the School of Social Work at the University of Toronto. The basic plan of this operation is very simple. It is to get together a carefully balanced group of leading industrialists, public officials and scholars in a three-stage conference to explore some of the implications of Canada's rapidly expanding economy upon Canada's human resources.

(1) E. H. Carr. **The New Society**—Macmillan & Co., London, 1951.

(2) Harrison Brown. **The Challenge of Man and The Future**—The Viking Press, Inc., New York, 1954.

(3) C. Wright Mills. **The Power Elite** and **The White Collar Class.**

The Conference met first in October, 1956, with Sir Geoffrey Vickers, V.C., M.A., as its Chief Consultant and leader. It will meet again in November, 1957, and in the Fall of 1958. Before the Conference met, six diverse areas of industrial expansion were selected for study and a brief profile of each area was prepared. The Conference itself, after a one-day session, broke up into six parties, each party then proceeding to one of the six areas for on-the-spot exploration. These brief, on-the-spot explorations were followed by a re-examination, in the Conference as a whole, of some of the problems which appeared to emerge from this comprehensive, if superficial look at industrialization in process. The six "impact areas" were, respectively, a lumber and paper-mill town in Northern Ontario, a new uranium mining area in the rocky and largely unsettled north west of Ontario, a suburban area outside Toronto based on a single large manufacturing plant, another suburban area with a mixed industrial expansion, the area of the new seaway development, and a downtown area of the City itself. The story of this first exploration is contained in various papers of the Round Table, of which the published account is a special supplement of the University of Toronto Quarterly[5] now available as a separate publication. The main characteristics of these impact areas could have been duplicated in a dozen locations in Canada today. The power and aluminum town of Kitimat (or its predecessor at Arvida), the lumber and paper cities of Newfoundland, the mining developments at Noranda, the iron ore developments of Knob Lake, the oil boom suburbia of Alberta and the downtown area of Vancouver or Montreal—these and many other examples might have been chosen for study. The locations may be different—the basic problems are likely to be the same.

Stage two of the project began with the summaries of the 1957 meeting, with the engagement of research staff, the identification of specific and limited questions of social importance and the mounting of limited research projects. Stage two will be completed when the Conference meets again in November, 1957, to consider the research work done thus far and to take a more carefully focussed look at the impact areas, and to examine more intensively some of the problems which have been uncovered. The groundwork for Stage III—the research work and preparations for the 1958 meeting—will be done. When 1958 arrives some estimate of the value of approach to the questions raised can be attempted.

This operation is designed primarily as a research operation. It begins with the assumption that industrialization is inevitable and desirable. If we had any doubts about its inevitability, the Preliminary Report of the Gordon Commission[6] which appeared since the first session of the Round Table, dispels them.

(5) University of Toronto Quarterly XXVI, No. 2, Jan. 1957, Toronto University Press.

(6) Canada: **Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects**; Preliminary Report: Queen's Printer, Ottawa, December 1956, p. 12.

> "While agriculture now accounts for some 15% of the total labour force, by 1980 its share may have declined to 7%. On the other hand, there will be a marked increase in the number of workers employed in the tertiary or service sectors of the economy, so that over the next 25 years the labour force employed in civilian government and community services, in transportation, storage and communications, and in trade finance and other services will increase from 47% to 55% . . . . It seems to be a general rule that as a country matures economically, the share of its labour force engaged in its tertiary or service industries tends to increase".

Here is one of the unmistakable signs of an industralized country—a cash-based economy with an ever increasing dependence of man on services provided by others. Another sign is increasing urbanization. The figures suggested by the Gordon Commission on this head are really rather terrifying:

> "In 1951 62% of the population lived in metropolitan areas or in other cities, towns or villages with more than 1,000 people. By 1980 that proportion may rise to 80%. Over the same period the proportion of the population living in metropolitan and urban areas of more than 100,000 may rise from 36% to 56%."

The evidence produced by the Round Table study groups which visited the growing urban areas related to—or perhaps I should say associated with but largely unrelated to—the spawning new industries, found a great many evidences of the social disorganization which accompanies unplanned industrialization. Among other phenomena these groups found.

1. **A growing mobility in the population.** Whole townships are uprooted to locate a seaway. Trailer camps of mobile workers engaged in various stages of industrial construction move in waves from one new site to another—the highly paid, socially rootless transients of industrial expansion. Rural populations are sucked by high wages into changing industrial production and have yet to "settle" into the social ways of life appropriate to industrialized living.

2. **The inadequacy of government organization** to the tasks which are required of it as Canada becomes an urbanised, wage-earning industrial people. The validity of this almost universal finding among the study groups is supported on the one hand by the academic scholars who predicate its necessity:

   > "Today we see about us on all sides a steady drift towards more human organization. Governments are becoming more centralized and universal. In practically all areas of endeavour within industrial society in our systems of production, in the fields of labour, capital, commerce, agriculture, science, education and art —we see the emergence of new levels of

organization designed to co-ordinate, integrate, bind and regulate men's actions."[7]

And the Gordon Commission who note, in situations by mild understatement:[8]

> "If the urban expansion that is inevitable is to avoid the errors of the past, more thought will have to be given to the total environment in which an increasing population of Canadians will spend their lives . . . .
>
> But if the task is to be accomplished in a manner that will best serve the welfare of the Canadian people, the problems of planning, of jurisdiction and of finance will require more attention from all levels of government and from citizens than they have usually been able to command in the past".

3. The costly mistakes of uncontrolled metropolitan development.

The cost in money, and in time, energy and human forbearance of long hours of commuting to work from dwellings that are unrelated to workplaces is a marked feature of every growing Canadian metropolis. Others are the abuse of land values for the taking of undue immediate profits at the cost of future social development: the failure to provide adequate social capital for schools, libraries, sewage plants, fire-halls; the failure to develop adequate police and fire services, uniform public welfare services; all of these symptoms of uncontrolled exploitation can be seen, and in time will reap their toll of human misery and misfortune.

> "It will also prove desirable to attempt more radical surgery on some of the slum districts that still disfigure many of our metropolitan areas. Efforts to cure these blighted sections may well involve planning on a larger scale and of a more flexible kind that has hitherto been undertaken".[9]

4. The Changing Position of Women

Several of the study groups drew attention to the contradictory tendencies in an expanding industrial economy:

(a) On the one hand it was noted that in the industries which are opening up new areas, such as heavy construction, mining developments; and in the isolated company towns devoted to pulp and paper production, the employment opportunities and the social living conditions for women were poor. "This is a man's town". "This is no place for women".

(b) On the other hand the groups studying the metropolitan

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(7) Harrison Brown: **The Challenge of Man's Future;** op. cit. p 2548.

(8) Canada: **Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects. Preliminary Report,** op. cit. p. 94.

(9) Canada. **The Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects;** op. cit. p. 95.

suburbia devoted particularly to service industries noted the growing opportunities for women to work. Of this second phenomenon it seems likely that a great deal more will be seen. The Gordon Commission forecasts some striking changes in the pattern of women's employment.[10]

Forecasts of Female Civilian Labour Forces. Proportions of two Age Groups in the Labour force of total civilian non-institutional population :

Year	Age 25-44	Age 45-64
1955	23.7%	18.8%
1960	25.2%	20.0%
1965	26.5%	21.5%
1970	27.8%	22.9%
1975	29.2%	24.3%
1980	30.6%	25.7%

If these estimates are reliable, and if it is true that large areas of primary industry are relatively closed to female employment, it follows that in urban areas the percentage of women in the age groups 25—64 going into regular industrial employment must approach, if not exceed, half the women in those age groups. It must also be true that increasing numbers of these will be married women with children. No one knows what the social consequences of this change in the status of women is going to be. No one knows what social benefits and what social strains these conditions are going to bring to the family in modern society. Recent studies in Great Britain[11] have shown that a common pattern is developing there, where industrialization has become the basic pattern of living, of the woman who marries quite early, retires from the labour market for a few years, say eight or ten, while her children are born and raised until the youngest goes to school, and then returns to the labour market, part time at first and later, as the children become self-dependent, full-time again. If these patterns of family incomes come to replace the accepted stereotype of "breadwinners" incomes in any great measure, it will play havoc with the basic income assumption of our social services that aim at income maintenance, and it will create immense strains upon accepted beliefs about family standards of living. The emotional consequences of family life all attune to the rhythm of industrial employment, of several income supporters in the family in place of the "normal" dependence upon the father as "head of the household", are not even the subject of thoughtful speculation; they could revolutionize our concept of the family as a social unit.

(10) Canada: **Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects**; op. cit. Extract from Table GI. p. 20.

(11) Richard, M.T. **Women and Work in Industrial Britain. The Vera Moberly Lecture**, Toronto, May 1957—Not yet published.

5. Education

Every Canadian Community has become conscious of the growing pressure of numbers on its inadequate schools and universities. It is true, though it is not always recognized, that Canada has one of the highest birth rates in the world, being higher than Japan, India, Pakistan and much higher than that of the countries of Western Europe. This phenomenon, which appears to have begun in the 1940's, is common over wide sections of the globe. It may be associated with industrialization—for example the birthrates in the 1860's and 1870's in Great Britain were very high—or it may be a phenomenon of the middle twentieth century, the full causes of which we do not yet understand.

But this is not the only educational problem—sheer numbers require more class-rooms, more teachers, more laboratories, more equipment. Industrialized societies require better educated workers, and more highly skilled workers for the operation of the complex machines. A great volume of unskilled repetitive work can now be performed by machines, and with the increase of automation this tendency will be greatly accelerated. But machines cannot think: they can only perform (albeit with incredible speed and accuracy) in accordance with predetermined patterns assigned to them by men. Modern society requires increasingly large numbers of semi-skilled technicians, and highly qualified technical and professional men and women. A social order based upon complex and interdependent urban living requires citizens with greatly increased capacities for social adjustment and greater resources of intellectual and social self-development. These demands upon the human members of an industrialized society in turn must mean even longer years of study and preparation for the younger generations; they mean new high schools for more children, new liberal arts colleges for the training of technicians, new universities to educate the professional workers, to train the research workers, to advance the limits of human knowledge and understanding, if mankind is to match the march of the machine with the upward surge of man's capacity to use his material resources and not be enslaved by them. This process in its turn must, I believe, have within it the seeds of many social casualties; for there are inevitably a great many human beings of marginal abilities who may—unless we are careful—be irretrievably damaged as the level of capacity required for successful living rises with each generation. Education will require boys and girls to be dependent consumers, where their predecessors of the same age groups were independent producers in the family economy as well as in the national economy. Education will be rerequired to prepare these growing numbers for the responsibilities of the new social, economic, political and industrial society to which they are now the heirs.

Society then finds itself with three new major burdens which must be met from the increased wealth of industrialized production:

(a) To maintain large numbers of children between 0 and 21 or even 23 as consumers of foods and services rather than as producers—as social dependents.

(b) To provide greatly enhanced educational facilities—the universities of Canada are now keenly aware of this side of the problem, but the allocation of $10 millions to the Canada Council is a meagre recognition of the need. We probably need $100 million in the next ten years to put the universities in a miminal condition to serve industrial Canada of the 1960's.

(c) To find socially desirable uses for the growing numbers of individuals who, even when their potential capacities are developed to the limit, may find themselves unable to meet the ever-rising standards of ability and knowledge required to adjust to and profit from industrialized urbanized living.

What happened at the Round Table was that instead of concentrating upon the material evidence of industrial expansion, we concentrated on what is happening to human beings. We spotted a great many unsolved and potentially dangerous social consequences, against which our society has taken few or no precautions. Equally important perhaps was the fact that, in some degree at least, the existence of these social dilemmas was acknowledged by the scholars, the business men and by the government officials. Their perception of these problems was certainly different, and therein lies one of the potential values of this method of approach. The problems are more likely to be seen "in the round", in the context of a complex of economic, political and social forces, in a way that no one individual and no one type of research approach can possibly apprehend.

The problem now is to disentangle the researchable items from the tangled web of fact and understanding which this first approach has uncovered. Dr. Murray Ross very wisely reminded the Round Table that many of the questions raised are not appropriate as subjects for research.[12] There are, as he points out, many facts which can and should be studied. Research costs money and requires skilled man-power. Neither have yet appeared in sufficient quantity to do more than permit us to take a tentative prod at a single problem. This fact, in itself, is a somewhat pointed reminder that we have yet to come to grips with the consequences for Man of industrial expansion to a sufficient degree that we are prepared to do more than talk about it.

(12 Murray G. Ross, **"The Round Table and Research"**; **University of Toronto Quarterly.** Vol. XXVI, No. Jan. 1957, p.p. 256-267.

Handcrafts in Rehabilitation

By PATRICIA McLEOD

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As an Occupational Therapist, I am very honoured to be asked to take part in this Conference and very glad to have the opportunity to demonstrate the close affinity between our two professions. Both in Physical and Psychiatric Medicine, Occupational Therapists work closely, hand-in-glove with Medical and Psychiatric Social Workers as members of the Rehabilitation team trying to solve patients' problems in overcoming disabilities.

Though now working in the Psychiatric field, I am glad to be able to give the Occupational Therapist's viewpoint on the problems, first of rehabilitation, then of employment of severely physically disabled people.

As there are varying interpretations on the word "Rehabilitation", it might prevent confusion if I tell you, first what the word means to me, and I think this interpretation is general in Britain:

> "the restoration of the patient to the highest level of function of which he is capable, physically, mentally, socially and economically".

Thus we are essentially concerned with the patient as a whole person and a member of society; with the particular problems of Mrs. X, the housewife, or Mr. Y, the mechanic, in overcoming and learning to live with a disability and not just with the disability itself.

As our discussion to-day is concerned with the problems of severely disabled people whose treatment cannot restore them to full normal function, I should mention here the sort of conditions I have in mind. For example, rheumatoid arthritis, hemiplegia resulting from a stroke, residual paralysis after polio-myelitis, and industrial injuries causing loss of function, such as amputations and nerve injuries, also congenital abnormalities such as cerebral palsy.

Faced with the problem of the permanently disabled patient, the aim of rehabilitative treatment in hospital is three-fold:—

(1) To restore the function of the affected part as far as possible..

(2) To make the patient as independent as possible in the activities of daily living.

(3) To fit him for some form of employment within the limits of his disability.

And so to our title:—

Where do hand-crafts come into the solution of this problem?

The answer is that they have very definite and valuable uses, and equally definite limitations, and I would stress at this point that hand-crafts are by no means the only form of therapeutic activity used by Occupational Therapists.

First then the reasons why we use hand-crafts in treating patients with physical disabilities:—

They offer a very wide scope of interest;

They offer also a wide scope of physical exercise with variable strength and range of movement which can be graded from the first stage of very light work in bed to a full day at a work bench.

The wide range of activities available can enable the therapist to assess the patient's aptitude to some extent where vocational guidance is needed.

She can also assess and record degrees of disability and progress made in treatment while the patient is engaged in a creative hand-craft.

Lastly, hand-crafts offer a particularly good means of restoring function to fingers, hands and arms. Indeed there is no other treatment comparable to actually using the hands creatively. It is fairly generally agreed that Occupational Therapy has more to offer in treating the upper extremities and physio-therapy in treating the lower extremities.

How the Occupational Therapist makes use of hand-crafts in treating a patient might be made clearer if I quote an example which illustrates a number of interesting points. This was a case recently treated at the Central Middlesex Hospital in London:

The patient was a Maintenance Engineer. He suffered a severe injury to his left hand in a circular saw accident which caused the loss of the three middle fingers and severe laceration to the remaining thumb and little finger. He was referred to Occupational Therapy after surgery, with a swollen, painful, weak hand; apparently seriously and permanently handicapped.

This is the sort of case which, without dynamic medical rehabilitation can result in a man's becoming dependent, ashamed, unemployable and ultimately a charge on the State and a burden to his family.

This is where the four aims of rehabilitation come into the picture:—"Restoration of Function physically, mentally, socially and economically."

(1) Restoration of maximum physical function in the affected part;

(2) To instill in the patient's mind, at the outset, a healthy and optimistic attitude towards his disability and to prevent self-pity.

(3) To prevent the formation of feelings of shame or shyness in social contacts because of a disfiguring disability.

(4) Lastly, to restore the man to independence and earning capacity as quickly as possible, which benefits economically both the State and his family.

The pattern of this man's treatment after surgery was as follows: He attended physio-therapy daily for wax treatment to supple and soothe the hand immediately before attending occupational therapy. He attended fifteen periods of treatment graduated from half an hour to four hours, as he made progress.

The therapist first measured the limited movement available. He then spent the first two sessions weaving with an adapted loom, using a Latex-padded roller to encourage grip. The main treatment activity was to design and make a table lamp with a turned and pierced stem requiring the use of many varied tools.

First, he drew a design using the left hand to hold down the ruler. This he found difficult. To plane, and later to turn the wood on a lathe, he used tools with padded handles to allow for both the sensitive, scarred area and the lack of flexion available. The size of the handles was gradually reduced until he was gripping the bare wood or metal with a smaller and stronger grip to overcome hypersensitivity. First, the hand was used to hold things steady and later to use a chisel and file involving active movement of the hand itself.

By the time the lamp-stand was completed he attained strong opposition of the thumb and little finger, the hand was becoming toughened to use and the swelling and stiffness had gone. Further improvement would come with ordinary use in the man's trade.

This man returned to his own job four weeks and two days after the accident. The credit was shared between the Surgeon, the Therapist and the man himself, since much of the success was due to his own determination to get back to work with the use of the injured hand.

This brings up an important point. Here was a man, a craftsman by trade and by nature, who was determined to make the grade. The craftsman who is disabled is a far easier problem to treat and find employment for than a disabled person who does not happen to be a craftsman in the general sense of having a natural ability to use his hands.

Another point is that his employers had no hesitation in taking him back. This was partly because, in Britain, there is legislation to insure that firms employ a percentage of disabled people. Also, since firms have now got used to employing the disabled, they know that it is generally to their advantage to do so. It has been shown statistically that in relation to the non-handicapped, disabled workers

(1) have equal or higher production rates;
(2) have fewer accidents;
(3) stay longer in their jobs;
(4) are less prone to absenteeism.

In this respect, Canada would do well to follow the example of Britain, West Germany and many other countries, in introducing legislation to give employment to her disabled since many of them who are a quite unnecessary charge on the State, could instead be contributing most usefully to industry.

Needed, too, is a change of attitude on the part of employers, the public and the disabled themselves. Disability must be met not only with sympathy and charity, but with opportunity—opportunity for treatment, for training if necessary, and for employment. Lastly, this case will serve to emphasize the fact that rehabilitation is essentially a medical problem.

Treatment services for the disabled need to be based on a Rehabilitation Treatment Centre, with Doctors specialized in Physical Medicine and facilities for Physio-therapy and Occupational Therapy. Other essential members of the rehabilitation team are the Medical Social Worker and the Special Placements Officer. Branching out from the initial treatment centre should be a Training Centre and a Sheltered Work Shop.

To return to the subject of hand-crafts, I mentioned that they have very definite limitations; and that other activities are needed for treatment.

(1) For the final toughening-up of a heavy-industry worker, ordinary handcrafts are inadequate; and such activities as log-splitting, heavy sawing and cement-block making may be used.

(2) Ordinary hand-crafts may not be sufficiently masculine in appeal for this type of worker, and activities borrowed from local industry may be more appropriate.

(3) In testing and training the patient for independence in the activities of daily living such as eating, dressing, washing and using public transport, a mock-up kitchen, bathroom and bus step are needed, and treatment periods must be given to these activities if necessary.

The primary importance of personal independence is being realized more and more as a really basic factor in successful rehabilitation. Nothing is so demoralizing for patients or so irritating for their families, than for them to have to depend on the help of others for their intimate daily needs. This is most particularly important for the housewife, too often forgotten in the past despite the fact that her job is universal and her role as wife and mother is the key to the well-being of every family.

I cannot speak of Canada, but I know that in the leading Physical Treatment Units in Britain this need is now realized and catered for.

While the Physio-therapist helps patients with problems of walking and moving about, the Occupational Therapist tests and trains them if need be, in the problems of putting on stockings, getting in and out of the bath, opening door handles, preparing meals and all the legion of activities which we, with full use of our limbs, take for granted.

Over the years methods and ideas have been developed and knowledge pooled so that now many simple and inexpensive gadgets are available which can enable patients to overcome disability. For instance, the polio victim confined to a wheel chair can learn to run her house and care for her family unaided; with training and advice, the rheumatoid arthritic can find ways of doing her own cooking with the help of a few special fittings and a trolley.

In helping with these domestic problems the Occupational Therapist and Social Worker work closely together and, if possible, the Therapist makes a home visit to suggest simple alterations and fittings.

In this respect a few words of advice to the family are often needed so that they do not make the patient dependent by oversolicitude.

The group whose problems we hope to discuss to-day are the severely disabled who may be home-bound, and in conclusion I would like to make some observations on the possibilities and problems of self-employment for these people from an Occupational Therapist's point of view.

In a case where the patient is definitely going to occupy himself at home with some form of craft work, and aims to sell what he makes, the Occupational Therapist should

(a) Help him find a craft for which he has real aptitude;

(b) Teach him (i) how to use designs and materials,
    (ii) where to get tools and supplies,
    (iii) how to cost the finished article,
    (iv) where to sell it.

Certain general principles need to be borne in mind if self-employment of this kind is being considered:—

(1) the patient must be able to do the whole job himself, if at all possible.

(2) A man needs a man's job, if he is to maintain his self-respect.

(3) Articles must be attractive, useful and of high standard, preferably with an appeal to the Tourist Trade for sales purposes.

(4) The sale of articles must be based on their saleability in competition with goods on the open market and not on an appeal to sympathy.

(5) Articles for use in a local industry, for instance, lobster pots, would be better than the more conventional forms of hand-craft.

(6) Local raw materials should be used wherever possible.

This kind of self-employment is really only satisfactory where a Home Visiting Occupational Therapy service is available; and practical experience has shown that it should only be a last resort. Sales are difficult. Remuneration is very poor, amounting, at best, to pin-money. In fact, sad though it may be, the public prefers machine-made goods and appreciation of hand-workmanship is becoming a thing of the past.

Three other lines of investigation are open to us in the search for employment for the severely handicapped.

(1) We should investigate the possibilities of out-work from local industries; for instance, glove-making, net-making and small-part assembly, etc. The goodwill and co-operation of heads of industries would have to be secured in order to obtain training for the patient, a steady supply of work and suitable remuneration as paid to able-bodied workers.

(2) Another possibility is self-employment at home, with a small business; for instance, a shop, shoe-repairing, axe and skate grinding.

The main problem here would be to obtain an advance of money to start the business; but, if practicable, this offers a good way for the patient to maintain his pride and self-respect.

(3) Lastly, there is the Sheltered Workshop—a service confined to large towns and dependent upon all-year-round transport facilities for patients. This fills a real need in a community such as this and would offer work within their powers to all types of severely handicapped people. It might even have as a sub-section, a day centre for the aged where they could find useful occupation and meet friends.

To sum up the situation and prospects for Occupational Therapy in Rehabilitation today, it is clear that all treatment must be realistic and must move with the times. As far as hand-crafts are concerned, they will always have a place in the specific treatment of certain physical conditions, but we must gear our therapeutic activities ever more closely to those of local industry and to the activities of daily living.

As far as the employment of the handicapped is concerned, it is becoming increasingly clear that where the able-bodied handcraftsman cannot now make a living, the disabled person cannot be expected to succeed. Added to this, the disabled person more than anyone else needs normal work, preferably something that brings him in daily contact with his fellows.

Lastly, if he is to make a satisfactory adjustment to his disability, there is another basic human need besides work that we must cater for. That is the need to contribute something to society, to have friends and to take part in the social life of the community.

Services to the Aged

A Summary of Remarks by NORMAN F. CRAGG,

Secretary, Committee on Aging, Canadian Welfare Council, introducing the Institute on Aging, Maritime, Conference on Social Work.

Canada, like many countries throughout the world, has recently become much more aware of the elderly people in its population. Along with recognition of the fact that this group makes up a substantial portion of the total population, has come increasing concern for them and acceptance of responsibility for their wellbeing.

Changes brought about by our growing industrialization and urbanization have created many problems affecting the aged. However, it is perhaps the dramatic increase in the number of older persons that has tended to focus our attention upon them. In 1951, for example, people seventy years and over in Canada numbered some 653,000 or more than double the number in 1921. They formed almost 5% of the population, as compared to 2% thirty years earlier. Persons sixty years and over numbered about 1½ million in 1951 and represented about 11% of the population, a rise of 4% since 1921. The probability of further increases in the number of old people underlines the need for the provision of adequate services to them.[1]

It is encouraging that in Canada there is ample evidence that citizen groups, welfare agencies, churches and the three levels of government are giving thoughtful consideration to the problem and are planning for the future.

Many programs now exist, designed to meet the various needs

(1) Future population trends cannot be forecast with any surety because of the assumptions which must be made about mortality rates, fertility rates, and the much greater variable, immigration, which in turn depend upon assumptions about future social and economic factors. Taking these into consideration, the Royal Commission on Canada's economic prospects offers three sets of forecasts of population depending on whether the net annual immigration will be 50,000, 75,000 or 100,000. On the basis of 75,000 annually, the Commission estimates that by 1980 persons seventy years of age and over will number 1.5 million and those sixty years and over 3.4 million.

During the thirty year period from 1921 to 1951 the proportion of persons seventy years of age and over in the population increased by 1.9% while the anticipated increase in the forecast period is 1.1%; comparable data for those sixty years of age and over show a rise of 3.9% in proportion to population from 1921 to 1951 and of 1.4% from 1951 to 1980. The aging of the population is thus expected to continue but at a somewhat lower rate of increase. **Services for the Aged in Canada**; Research and Statistics Division, Department of National Health and Welfare, Ottawa, June 1957, p. 2.

of older people. However, progress to date, while encouraging, is spotty, and much needs to be done to alert citizens to the need for adequate services to old people and to encourage them to take the necessary steps to provide such services. The Canadian Welfare Council has recently appointed a National Committee on Aging whose purpose is to collate and disseminate as much information as possible about the needs and problems of an aging population, to carry out studies and to give guidance to local organizations that are concerned with older people. Committees on aging have been set up by welfare councils and other organizations across Canada. One event of great significance recently concluded was the First Ontario Conference on Aging which brought together some six hundred persons not only from Ontario but from many other parts of Canada. A somewhat similar conference was held in British Columbia this spring and of course the Martitime Conference is directing attention to the needs of the aging through the provision of this institute.

BILL OF OBJECTIVES FOR OLDER PEOPLE

How should we treat old people? The Council of State Governments in 1955 approved a bill of objectives for older people which we in Canada would do well to adapt to our own purposes. It lists:

1. **Equal Opportunity to Work.** Our society recognizes the value of work to the person and to the community. The older person should have equal opportunity, if physically and mentally able, to be gainfully employed.
2. **Adequate Minimum Income.** Older persons should have a retirement income sufficient for health and for participation in the community life as self-respecting citizens.
3. **Home Living.** Older persons are entitled to the satisfactions of living in their own homes, and when this is not feasible, in suitable substitute private homes.
4. **Homelike Institutional Care.** For older persons who need care that cannot be given them in their own or other private homes, they have a right to expect the institutions that serve them to be as homelike as possible and have high standards of care.
5. **Physical and Mental Health.** Older adults should have adequate nutrition, preventive medicine and medical care adapted to the conditions of their years.
6. **Physical and Mental Rehabilitation.** Older persons who are chronically ill, physically disabled, mentally disturbed, or unemployable for other reasons, have a right, to the fullest extent possible, to be restored to independent useful lives in their homes and communities.
7. **Participation in Community Activities.** Older citizens can ex-

pect encouragement and assistance to form social groups and to participate with those of other ages in recreational, educational, religious and civic activities in their communities.

8. **Social Services.** In planning for retirement and in meeting the crises of their later years, older persons should have the benefits of such social services as counselling, information, vocational retraining and social casework.

9. **Research, Professional Training.** Older citizens should be able to expect an increase of research on the human aspects of aging, and development of special courses in school and departments of medicine, nursing, clinical psychology and social work to train professional workers in the field of aging.

10. **Freedom, Independence, Initiative.** In securing the foregoing objectives there should be increased emphasis on the right and obligation of older citizens to free choice, self-help and planning of their own futures.[2]

We now know that no one section of the community should be under-serviced. If this happens, the entire population will be adversely affected. This means that community services should be as available to old people as to other age groups. However, while the community must focus more attention on old people, we do them a disservice if we place them in a separate category. I like the point of view expressed by Dr. Benjamin Miller, who says "Surely the most civilized attitude to take is to regard old people simply as people".

Now, as the basis for discussion, let me briefly list some of the services in this field available in various parts of Canada:

1. **Income Maintenance.** Among the organized attempts to provide income security for the aged, are old age security and old age assistance programs, with supplementary allowances in certain provinces. (It is worth pointing out here that there is often need to increase cash payments to provide sufficient funds for old people to live. Provision for greater independence would do much to prevent older people seeking institutional care for economic reasons only). We also have: blind and disabled persons allowances, unemployment assistance, general assistance, government annuities and employee pension plans.

2. **Employment and Retirement.** Older people should be helped to maintain or secure employment. This will not only lighten the economic burden on the community and on the individual, it will also help to maintain mental and physical health in older people by satisfying their desire to continue in useful roles as breadwin-

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(2) **Mobilizing Resources for Older People.** Proceedings of the Federal-State Conference on Aging, June 5, 6, 7, 1956, Washington, D.C., pp. 9, 10.

ners or contributing members of society. A number of organizations at federal and local levels are giving attention to the problems of employment. Amongst these are the National Employment Service, the Inter-departmental Committee on Older Workers of the National Advisory Council on Man-power, the Department of Veterans Affairs and local welfare councils. Sheltered workshops play an important part in training and re-training of older people. It is encouraging to note the changing attitudes in industry toward older workers although it must be admitted that we still have far to go in this direction. Recent surveys conducted in Canada and the United States provide evidence that the older worker, far from being a liability, is in many instances a more reliable and effective employee than many of his younger associates. A great deal of attention is being given to problems of retirement with which is associated, of course, the problem of pension plans. The present rapid development of pension plans is encouraging but they can also make for difficulties in the employment of persons over the age of forty or forty-five.

3. **Living Arrangements.** Elderly persons should have a chance to live in their normal way with as little disturbance as possible, so that they can maintain a sense of dignity and self-respect. Therefore there should be a choice of small houses or cottages, apartment units, rooming and boarding houses that are licenced and supervised by appropriate health departments, family foster-care programs, boarding home care and institutions to meet varying stages of dependency. There has been substantial progress made in various parts of Canada in recent years in the building of moderate or low-rental housing projects under sections 16 and 36 of the National Housing Act, with additional financial assistance from certain provinces and municipalities. Institutional building has also increased considerably. It has been recognised that while every effort should be made to help keep a person independent, admission to an institution is the community's only way to care for certain old people.

4. **Services.** There is growing recognition that through the provision of certain basic services, communities can enable many old people to remain in their own homes. These include family counselling and case-work from family agencies, home-help services, friendly visiting, and the provision of suitable and accessible recreational facilities.

5. **Health and Medical Care.** A major problem faced by older people is that of maintaining good health, or if need be, securing adequate medical or hospital services at a cost within their financial means. There is a variety of such services which are designed to meet some of the costs of illness. These include certain pre-paid medical and hospital programs, public mental health services, visiting nursing services and treatment services to meet certain specific disease conditions. Some provinces provide special programs of

hospital or medical care for recipients of public assistance.[3]

Gaps and Limitations

If the listing and description of present services indicate progress in meeting the needs of older people, they also emphasize gaps and limitations. There are many unmet needs and geographic coverage is spotty. Surveys recently carried out in Ottawa, Toronto, Winnipeg and Edmonton have brought out the need for further study and action. In the final sessions of the First Ontario Conference on Aging, no less than 112 recommendations and resolutions were tabled. We have awakened to a realization that most people, including the aged, given sufficient economic means are capable of managing their own lives provided the community offers a wide and diversified program of services. It is now up to us to work on a community, regional and national basis to plan adequate health and social services, housing, recreation and cultural facilities. Our primary interest in this Institute is the again. Ultimately it is the total community.

This brief summary has obviously only touched the high spots in the field of aging. I hope that the discussion to follow will provide opportunity for more detailed consideration of the problem and the means of meeting them.

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(3) For a more complete and detailed listing of these and other services referred to in this paper, see "Services for the Aging in Canada", published in June, 1957, by the Research and Statistics Division of the Department of National Health and Welfare, Ottawa. Additional information may be secured from the Canadian Welfare Council, 55 Parkdale Avenue, Ottawa.

The Handicapped

Synopsis of Talk Given by DR. KEITH S. ARMSTRONG,

National Executive Director Canadian Council for Crippled Children and Adults, Toronto, Ontario.

The adequate provision for a programme for the rehabilitation of the disabled person requires a flow of services involving medical, social work and educational personnel. It does not necessarily demand the creation of new services but rather the intelligent use of the existing facilities in the community, supplemented by special services where special needs must be met.

A rehabilitation programme begins with case finding. There are many resources available for locating those who require assistance in reestabilshing themselves—doctors' referrals, public health and nursing field services, welfare workers, schools, service clubs and community organizations. Special projects for the locating of disabled people which have proved successful include the crippled children's register, mobile diagnostic clinics and special community surveys.

The second phase of rehabilitation is adequate diagnosis and evaluation. This includes not only an adequate description of the physical condition of the patient but also mental and emotional factors, the social history and the rehabilitation potential of the patient. In short, a clear picture of what the patient is and what his possibilities are, is the basis of adequate planning.

It is logical that the third phase in the process should be treatment. In co-operation with hospitals, special clinics, rehabilitation centres, etc., it should always be the first aim of any rehabilitation programme to remove or reduce to a minimum the physical disability. This may involve operative procedures which will eliminate the handicap, or teaching the patient methods of compensating for movements which he cannot ordinarily perform.

The fourth phase of rehabilitation is the integration of the patient into the life of his community. The goal is independence. As with the able-bodied, so with the disabled, satisfactory vocational adjustment is basic. No placement officer, however, can be successful without the active support and assistance of the team of workers. The social and emotional adjustment of the disabled, his acceptance by the community, and his family, are primary prerequisites. Meeting his educational need is essential. Where an adjustment to the regular educational facilities can be made, this is ideal. Failing this, the necessity for special school facilities or occupational training courses must be considered. It is generally agreed that the difference between the objectives of special education and the regular facilities for education in the community is one of emphasis. The training of the disabled person from an early age to be able to handle a specific job is important. This implies good vocational counselling; emphasis on pre-vocational training; as well as good vocational training facilities when the individual reaches adolescence or adult life. Where the aim of independence cannot be achieved, special facilities must be created if the disabled person is to have an opportunity to make his maximum contribution to his community. Homebound programmes, sheltered workshop programmes, recreational and social facilities are a must in the comprehensive rehabilitation programme.

These four phases in the process of rehabilitation cannot be considered as separate self-contained units, but rather as phases in a comprehensive plan. No disabled person should be made to feel that he is passed from one phase to the next.

There are many special aids available to those working in a rehabilitation programme. Financial assistance to the disabled through social assistance plans; there are transportation services provided through voluntary agencies; loan cupboards and equipment pools; social and recreational activities of handicapped associations; prosthetic appliances and brace shops; these and many other resources facilitate the successful rehabilitation of the disabled person.

Any consideration of the rehabilitation process is incomplete without emphasis upon the necessity of research and prevention. Those of us who are interested in rehabilitation programmes have a very vital interest in much of the basic research which is being conducted throughout the country, as well as accident prevention programmes and such like.

Finally, no rehabilitation programme can be complete without an effective programme for public education. However successful we may be in preparing a disabled person for industry, if industry is not willing to accept the individual, our efforts are fruitless. Formal programmes for public education using the media of newspapers, television and radio can be set up. The most effective organ of public education, however, is the careful placement of the disabled person in industry and the individual contacts with employers made by the special placement officers.

Social Disorganization

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS TO THE FIRST PERIOD OF AN INSTITUTE.

C. G. GIFFORD

Assistant Professor of Group Work, McGill University School
of Social Work, Montreal.

The programme says—"As our economy expands, how does it affect our formerly self-sufficient families? Disruption of old patterns requires the establishment of new resources".

We can describe in a general way how families are affected, because what we are thinking of is a process which has been going on for at least one hundred and forty years. At the same time, to describe it **specifically** as it applies to Canada cannot be done, because we haven't the data. We can get little facets of it. For instance, in Quebec province the agencies dealing with juvenile offenders report that the number of convictions for juvenile offences has increased 25% in each of the past two years—in other words, if the convicted offenders numbered 20 per 1000 of their age group in 1954, in 1955 they numbered 25 per 1000 and in 1956 they numbered 31 per 1000.

Some of you may have seen this month's (June, 1957) issue of "Canada's Mental Health". This shows that the annual number of Mental Hospital admissions was about 85 per 100,000 of population in 1932, and in 1955 it was about 205 per 100,000 of population, almost 2½ times as many. General factors are involved—1. There is greater knowledge of mental illness and an increase in voluntary admissions. 2. There is a higher proportion of aged, whose admission is sought primarily for economic reasons; and 3. More people are experiencing mental ills.

We can safely assume that the increase in delinquency and increase in number of people experiencing mental illness is a product of social disorganization. But the statistics are only symptoms and don't tell us much about the thing itself.

What then, is social disorganization? Social **organization** is a pattern of attitudes, beliefs, relationships, expected and accepted ways of behaving, which holds people together in such a way that each feels significant and feels he is part of the whole. King Saud of Arabia, his feudal retainers and his slaves, are part of such a social organization, where each has his role and is part of the whole; the Scottish clan, the factor, the fishing village or market town, the farm family, the Indian tribe of old—all these have their complex, interwoven social systems—the **social** part of it being that it is the fact of being a part of that **system** which gives the person significance.

Social **dis**organization, then, is the opposite—the state of things in which relationships, beliefs, expectations, are in flux. This flux may be relatively a good thing—as in the breakdown of the slave state, or it may be a relatively bad thing—as in the time of the enclosing of common lands in England in the 15th and 16th centuries. Also, whenever it occurs, it leads to both suffering and opportunities—it is a "melting pot" time, and the resulting shape may be influenced by the participants.

Now, regarding the nature of this process in our time, I should like to quote to you Sir Geoffrey Vickers, who describes brilliantly the relation between industrialization and social organization—in his speech on "The Needs of Man", to the Round Table on "The Impact on Human Well-being of a Rapidly Evolving Industrialization", (Toronto Quarterly, January, 1957). He points out that basically, in every part of the world, industrialization raises the same sorts of problems,—"The impact of industrialization depends in part on the forces which drive it, still more on how and how far these forces are controlled. Today it is proceeding most rapidly in the Soviet Union, with Mexico a good second. There are important differences between the process in the two and between each and the situation in my own country. Your own problem is again different. Yet despite these differences, the underlying problems are, I believe, common to all of us. Industrial development has shown itself everywhere to be a vastly de-stabilizing force. . . . . . With one hand industrialization offers abundance and leisure; with the other it often frustrates enjoyment of them. It has even been known to offer luxuries with one hand and to withdraw necessities with the other—or so it has seemed to me when I have seen above smoke-grimed roof tops a forest of television aerials in an atmosphere lethal and industrial wastes. In every country where it has run a course of any length, there has sprung up, often in the teeth of the prevailing political creed, a jungle of devices to control its unforeseen and unintended threats to the well-being of man and society. . . . . . . What is it about industrialization which sets this universal problem?

"The answer, I think, is simple. Industrialization tends to make a progressive impact on four areas of great importance to human well-being. It changes and restricts our living space; it divorces our social from our economic life; it changes our aspirations and especially our concepts of status and success; and it erodes the structure of expectations which underlies both our sense of security and our power of foresight. . . . . . What it does is to present us with new choices; and often with choices which we have neither experience nor machinery for making". (Pages 208-209).

(Following this there were further quotations from Sir Geoffrey Vickers, illustrating the first two points—the restriction of living space, and the divorce of social and economic life. Further quotations illustrated the second two points—the impact of industry on our ideas of status and success, and the erosion of the expectations which underlie our behaviour.)

We will discuss these latter two points more fully, because I believe they, particularly the last, lie at the core of social disorganization.

It should be pointed out here that, although there may not be a new factory or mine in our town, nevertheless the effects of the process in the country as a whole affect everyone in these latter two ways.

I remember vividly an incident, when working on a farm; we had come in from haying, for dinner, and just at the same time a brush salesman came along too. No one had ever seen him before and everyone was introduced all around. And the wife, without saying a word, set another place at the table, and the farmer invited him to come and wash with the rest of us. So he joined the meal and joined the family, and afterwards talked about brushes. The point is, it was expected—the brush man expected to be taken in and the family expected to take him in. To a city boy, that was extraordinary, and like a blessing.

Now what would happen under similar circumstances here in St. John's? Mutual expectations would be very different. If there is a difference of dress, of accent, if one is unshaven and the other not, even if one has enough food to share, a person coming to the door needing food feels to the householder like a threat; if a man needs a meal he has to ask for it, to beg; there isn't the dignity of the common expectation.

We can take more profound examples. The sense of sanctified mutual obligation has certainly diminished in marriage, or as between children and parents. How many ministers preach now on the theme "Honour thy father and thy mother"?

The final point I should like to make is that the characteristic of the physical and spiritual migrations in the industrial age is that they are individual. The great migrations of every age until this one have been **group** migrations; the Mayflower carried a community with a common faith; the pioneers moving west mostly went in groups; whole communities would move together. But in our day the usual thing is to migrate as individuals or small families. With us there is not that unity, that sense of being a part of a whole—most of us get that sense partially through our churches and other voluntary organizations, but the difficulty with that is that so many people fall between. With some kinds of mental illness, you find a significant number of patients who somehow have never belonged to anything. Even in the **brand new** communities, we have the psychological barriers between the old-comers and newcomers, the manager and the men, and all the other iron curtains or silken curtains, or whatever we want to call them. These are not rigid in our country—they aren't anywhere, but less so here than in most places, but they are real. My contention is that if we are really going to deal with the problems arising out of social disorganization and meet the need for self-realization that Mr. Curry mentioned yesterday, we need to work on developing a new sense of community, a sureness of group belonging suited to our times.

SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION AND LEISURE TIME

By C. C. GIFFORD.

Second Session

It says in the programme that I am going to examine a recreation programme covering all ages. Well, I don't know whether it's because of adaptability or flexibility or pure "rambunctiousness" but I'm not going to do that, because I have become convinced that recreation **as such** has no contribution to make to the solution of the problems we have been talking about. I think recreation is a necessity of life for all of us—we all need creative activity, we need social and physical relaxation and activity. But these activities do not change our characters—they keep us healthy, because it is healthy to have fun, but they don't teach us democracy—what Sir Geoffrey Vickers calls "the unending debate", and they don't give us peace of mind, they don't teach us to love instead of to hate. Such delinquency, in the sense of criminal character, as is prevented by recreation is more accidental than otherwise, and we deceive ourselves when we claim that keeping the boys off the streets, and putting a baseball bat in their hands, is going to save them from a life of crime.

In 1948 and 1949, in Toronto, there was a furore in the newspapers about teenage gangs. One of the aldermen said—"No boy who plays baseball will ever get into trouble". Now, in looking into the best known of the gangs, the Beanery Gang, it was found that of the fifteen who had "delinquent personalities", most were good athletes and good dancers. They had **all** been active participants in the Y.M.C.A. for a number of years, and one of them was city champion diver in his age group. He came from just outside the district and claimed to have met the others in the gang through the "Y" dances.

This past winter I have been meeting regularly with a group of ex-convicts, most of whom have had more than one conviction. One night when there were four present, we talked about this question of recreation; it turned out that one had been in the Boy Scouts for four years, and in the "Y" as well; another had been in the Boy Scouts and a Boys' Club; the third had been in the Boy Scouts; and the fourth in a Boys' Club.

Now, the **fact** appears to be that our claims to prevent delinquency through these programmes are at present largely wishful thinking; but on the other hand most potential delinquents **do** come to these programmes and give us the **opportunity** to help them. How we could do a job on this particular thing would take up the whole of our time, but I use these examples to support the assertion about recreation—that it does not, of itself, combat the effects of social disorganization.

Mr. Curry referred to Kitimat and its fine recreation programme sponsored by the Company. In spite of this recreation programme it is having a severe labour-management conflict right now.

Now, you may say it is unfair to blame recreation in connection with these things, that there are obviously other factors at work. I couldn't agree more, and the point I am leading up to is precisely that our leisure time programmes need to focus on these other factors. In this connection, Mr. Curry referred yesterday to recreation programmes in such places as Kitimat causing men to be, and I quote, "relatively content". I think this is a dangerous goal for recreation—to make the populace content and unconcerned about it's real problems, as the Caesars did in giving the citizens of Rome "bread and games". In contributing to the repair of social disorganization, we need a broader approach to the use of leisure time than that of recreation or informal education.

We have here a record of a recreation agency which set itself seriously to this task. The agency did not give up all its former jobs, but it did seriously address itself to what we are talking about today. It serves a population which, at the beginning, is suffering fairly severe social disorganization. It is a pocket of lower-income and deteriorating housing in an otherwise spacious and well-kept community in a northern U.S. city.

The population is cut across by silken curtains of various kinds —first there are the old residents and the new; then there are whites and negroes, roughly fifty-fifty, with prejudice; many of the people are tenants, some are landlords, and some are homeowners; some are opposed to drinking and others are excessive users of liquor; there is mistrust or prejudice towards the police.

The record is entitled "A Neighbourhood Acts", and is one of the teaching records published by the Council on Social Work Education.

The agency, and the neighbourhood it served, went through the following experiences in attempting to deal with these problems.

Until April, 1953, the agency, a settlement house, gave primarily a recreation service to a fifty-block area. The following quotations excerpted from interviews with residents show some of their attitudes at the beginning of the period :

"Mr. J. welcomed me somewhat suspiciously into his home. Together with his wife he became more friendly as he understood the nature of my visit. The house, being located directly across from the refuse filled vacant lot and some of the worst housing on Gay Street, I was genuinely surprised to find a very beautiful home. . . . . . Mr. J. said that he wished something could be done. . . . . His wife said, 'You know, the other day I sat outside wondering what would ever happen to this neighbourhood, because I realize so many things are wrong'. 'What can I do? I have a responsibility to make things better. I wondered not only about the housing conditions, but also about the people and their lack of morals'. . . 'Many times I have been sorry that we bought our house here, yet all our savings are in it and we cannot move now.' . . . " (pg. 11)*

"Mrs. D. is not at all proud of her present dwelling. She lives right in the midst of all the noise of 305 . . . . She and her husband are very much interested in moving out of the area . . . . The landlord refuses to make any improvements to the property. The outside walls are in very bad condition. The floors are in need of repairs, as well as the plaster on the walls. They have complained about the dampness of the dirt cellar and the need for central heating . . . Recently Mrs. D. had to take her son to the Westtown Hospital for treatment for ringworm. Her smallest baby is steadily losing weight. . . .Mrs. D. is expecting another child, and hopes that she can be in a better home before the child's birth. Mrs. D. related how a woman dumps her waste in the backyard next to the wall of the bedroom where her children sleep. Several times the waste came through the wall and soiled the bed linens. . In the summertime the noise is unbearable. When asked if the drunks annoyed her in any way, she said that often they give her a smart remark as she passes through the alleyway into her house, but that she just ignored them." (Pg. 12).

"Mrs. C., an Italian American lives with her husband in the first floor rear apartment behind Mr. B.'s tool and die office. The apartment has four rooms which are neat, cheerful and attractively decorated. Mrs. C. was convalescing from a heart attack and had been confined to the apartment for several months. . . . . . In a very soft spoken, articulate way she . . . . . blamed the landlords almost entirely for the existing conditions. . . . . ." (Pg. 12).

" . . . . . Mr. R. . . . . . said he . . . . would be willing to answer some questions about the neighbourhood. He definitely likes the community and plans to live here permanently. However, he was outspoken in his feelings against the Negroes. . . . . . In spite of his feelings he agreed that he would be willing to cooperate with a group to pull up the neighbourhood." (Pg. 13).

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* **A Neighbourhood Acts**, New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1956. Permission to reproduce excerpts used in this paper has been granted by the Council on Social Work Education, 345 East 46th Street, New York 17, N.Y. Numbers in brackets after each quotation refer to page numbers in the record.

How did the settlement house start on its new approach?

"During the winter and spring of 1953, staff attention was turned from the well established 'Four Walls' recreation programme to a consideration of more pressing neighbourhood social problems. A general survey of homes in scattered sections of the neighbourhood resulted in a sharpened focus on problems of major concern. In one section of the neighbourhood deterioration of homes, families and environmental conditions was clearly evident." (Pg. 8).

Then they consulted various people.

"Early in the fall, conferences were held with several housing experts to consider various approaches to the problem, and to learn about all available resources. The following people were consulted and agreed to serve on an advisory group, if an experimental project were undertaken: the director of the City Housing Association, a voluntary organization; representatives of the Department of Public Health; representatives of the Department of, Licenses and Inspection; a representative from the Mental Health Association; a representative from the Public Housing Authority; and the City Housing Coordinator." (Pg. 8).

Then in December, 1953, a project in one large block, containing one hundred and thirty-three families, was started. There were four objectives:

"a. To involve neighbours in various courses of action leading to improved housing conditions.

b. To involve neighbours in cooperative solution of related problems as they become known, e.g. traffic, trash filled vacant lots, stray dogs, etc.

c. To help neighbours get to know each other and live together in a friendly, cooperative neighbourhood atmosphere.

d. To make full use of any leadership which emerges." (Pg. 9)

". . . . . There was evidence of good and bad housing, both owned and rented houses, and a fairly even distribution of Negroes and White people. . . . . . Several interviews were arranged with church and social agency leaders familiar with the area. . . . . . Both the director of the Public School's Home Economics Department and the nurse of the Visiting Nurse Society shared some very helpful information on several families. . . . . ." (Pgs. 9 & 10).

The actual survey took three months, with an average total of twenty-five hours a week by two staff members and a student from the School of Social Work.

The following is a partial list of the problems uncovered, and of the number of residents who considered each item to be a problem:

"a. Housing conditions	75
b. Traffic	72
c. Loitering and offensive behaviour	69
d. Illegal sale of liquor	46
e. Landlords	34
f. Electric wire on fire	20
h. Vacant lot on Gay Street	16
j. Teen-age behaviour	13
r. Police payoff	7

(Pgs. 14 & 15).

"Following the interviews, seven small group meetings were scheduled in homes around the block. The homes selected were in excellent condition and, except for one, were owned or rented by Negroes. These choices were made for two reasons: (1) more Negroes volunteered use of their homes for meetings; and (2) this seemed a good opportunity to deal a permanent blow to stereotypes (fixed ideas) of living conditions, held by some white families." (Pg. 16).

"A total of 48 people—34 Negroes—attended the seven meetings. . . . . . In all but one meeting, where the attendance was small, there was a high spirit and strong neighbourly feeling with people speaking up freely about many problems. The idea of neighbours cooperating and taking responsibility for helping themselves seemed to catch hold. There was strong agreement on major problems with emphasis on disorderly conduct, illegal sale of liquor, traffic and bad housing. . . . . . For the first time the people began to realize the strength of working in groups. Several people testified to failure in trying to solve problems on their own. The small numbers at some of the meetings did not deter enthusiasm, and there seemed to be general acceptance that some people had to be convinced before they would go along and give support . . ." (Pg. 17).

"At the end of the meeting I thanked Mrs. Janes for her hospitality, and Mr. Forcelli remarked, 'I am happier about meeting in this home than anyone else in this room.' He then explained that he had recently come under some criticism, after renting his home to an Italian family, that he was very prejudiced against the coloured, (all attending this meeting were Negroes except Mr. Forcelli). He explained the situation carefully and wanted to be very sure that everyone understood that he judged people on the basis of their standards and behaviour, and that colour of skin did not matter to him. This was a very dramatic and sincere expression, and the group took it for this. Thus the meeting ended on a very high note. Several of the group agreed to talk with neighbours who had not attended, and were very enthusiastic about a follow-up meeting later in April. Mrs. Janes offered the use of her home again and Mrs. Johnson, who had not spoken all evening and whose husband is one of the patrons at 305, volunteered her home for our next meeting." (Pg. 21).

There was then a meeting of representatives of each of the seven small groups. This is the staff members final comment about this:

"As much as anything else, the meeting served to bring the neighbours closer together and brought out very dramatically the presence of some real neighbourhood leadership . . ." (Pg. 23).

This was followed by a meeting of landlords, only attended by seven out of thirty landlords, at which . . . . **"All present agreed** that there should be a cooperative effort with the neighbourhood in solving problems and in making gradual improvements in housing situations." (Pg. 24).

The next step was an open meeting for all residents of the block. **"Forty people attended the meeting,** twenty-five of whom lived within the block boundaries. The other fifteen consisted of interested neighbours, Council representatives, landlords, a minister, and a school principal. Captain Frank led a full and frank discussion on the subjects of offensive behaviour and the illegal sale of liquor. The Chairman of the Neighbourhood Council presided at this meeting." (Pg. 24).

A second landlords' meeting began . . . . "on a rather pessimistic note as the landlords supported each other in the futility of trying to get adequate financial support to do a conservation programme in this area." However, ... "The meeting wound up on a much more harmonious and positive note than that on which it had begun. Mr. M. seemed to be relieved that there was no actual pressure being put on him to improve properties, and Mr. L.'s statement of future plans seemed to have an encouraging effect on the others present. . . . . ." (Pgs. 25 & 26).

"At the next all-block meeting, five tenants and five property owners volunteered to serve on a housing committee with the five representative landlords. It was agreed that immediate attention should be given to one deplorable housing situation in the block. . ." (Pg. 27).

"Later in June the new Housing Committee held its first meeting, with only two of the fifteen members absent . . ." (Pg. 27).

Mr. S., a tenant, who had come in late and missed my introductory remarks on co-operation, wasted no time in making his complaint against the landlord tactics of Mr. L. . . . . ." (Pg. 27).

I suggested the formation of a committee to handle emergency health and safety problems whenever they come up. Since both Mr. L. (landlord) and Mr. S. (tenant) seemed concerned about the situation, it was suggested that Mr. S. join Mr. L. on this committee. This added a spirited note to the meeting in view of the earlier conflicts between 'these two fine gentlemen'. Their coming together seemed to be a sign for everyone present that this Housing Committee had already accomplished something. Mr. F. (landlord) stated this in effect. Mr. L. even had a compliment for Mr. S., and said, 'This fellow has given me more trouble than any of my tenants—always pressing for improvements, but I respect him for it and appreciate fellows like this.' These comments seemed to bolster Mr. S.'s ego, although he was somewhat suspicious." (Pg. 29).

Some of the residents' own estimate of the side effects of this process appear in the following quotation :

"As the meeting was closing, Mrs. P. (landlord) remarked that, 'all these meetings and improvements in properties are good for the morale of the neighbourhood.' Mr. Forcelli added, 'This movement we are working on gives me one of the greatest pleasures of my life.' Mr. L. agreed that we are making progress, but was disappointed that some members of the Committee are not showing up, especially Mr. S. (tenant). He felt that it was not fair for a person to attend meetings to get something done for himself and then not cooperate on other cases. The Committee agreed with this, and again it was evident that in most cases it is the conscientious members who really get the job done". (Pg. 33).

One of the sub-projects which developed is worth quoting because it illustrates well how a number of people became active in mutual help:

"The desire to bring about a change of appearance in the rubbish filled vacant lot on Gay Street, coupled with a need for small children's recreation facilities, speared by a small group of mothers grandmothers into action. Mr. Francis of the City Recreation Association was invited to the first meeting in the rear of Mrs. S.'s grocery store. He advised the group on necessary steps for developing a tot lot, and promised the advisory support of his organization in the venture. It was suggested that part-time supervision might be available by next year. When it had been determined that 75 to 100 children would be eligible to use the facilities, and that a five year lease could be obtained for the cost of taxes, the project was given a green light. Strong neighbourhood support was forthcoming. A group of fourteen men and women formally organized themselves into the Gay Street Tot Lot Association . . ." (Pg. 34).

"The Westtown Settlement then agreed to act as a sponsorsing organization, holding the lease and carrying liability insurance—expenses to be carried by the Association". (Pg. 34).

"The Finance Committee went to work and raised $110 in individual memberships, which more than covered the $75 to be paid for the first year's rent and insurance. Mr. L., father of eleven children, assumed strong leadership in pushing a small but hardworking Committee into the ardurous task of cleaning up and leveling the lot. The City cooperated by providing a large dump truck which hauled away two full loads of trash. The **Westtown News** headlined: 'GAY STREET . . . NEIGHBOURS BANISH TOT LOT

TRASH . . . Two truck loads of trash, including a deceased feline, several dozen shoes, unmatched, and a tattered water bill were removed Saturday from the vacant lot on W. Gay Street that will soon be a totl lot for neighbouring children'." (Pg. 35).

"Momentary despair hit the group when only a few men and children turned out to help with the job that loomed much larger than anticipated. All efforts to obtain a donation of a bulldozer failed, so finally one was hired to level the ground. The **Westtown News** reported 'TOT LOT FUNDS GO DOWN BUT SO DOES HILL'. This action depleted the treasury by $80 causing a temporary financial crisis. In need of more funds and help to spread dirt and rake rocks on the playground, Mr. L. called an emergency meeting in the middle of the lot, inviting people to bring their own chairs if they wished to be seated. More than thirty people assembled, some interested and some just plain curious. Everyone became involved when Mr. F., a neighbourhood businessman, organized a list of ten men who promised to finish the clean-up job. All the women were put on a block party fund raising committee, and the dates were immediately set for the event. Mr. F. himself agreed to chair a raffle committee, and also promised to get estimates for a new fence.

"Moral support came from the Councilman who visited the playground. He hailed the project and offered his support but explained that City aid for the private project was impossible.

"At this point the group seems to have the spirit and determination to get the desired results. Most important, they are feeling and carrying the full responsibility". (Pg. 35).

The record contains fifty-five pages altogether, of the sort of thing we have been talking about. The experience was summarized as follows:

"It would seem that a start has been made in arousing sufficient numbers of neighbours into cooperative action on common problems. Approaching problems in a way which will involve constructive efforts of people takes time, but our goal of improving neighbourhood relations, as well as the environment, calls for this additional expended effort. For those of us working on the project the value of this approach is continually evident. Changes in attitudes and in the way people get along together are always more satisfying than mere property improvements. There are many difficult problems which lie ahead: implementing the new Housing Code; increasing the effectiveness of the Housing Committee; ridding the neighbourhood of the illegal liquor sale establishments—the symbol of most that is evil in the block; building stronger leadership; and most of all, sustaining the interest of neighbours . . . ." (Pgs. 37 & 38).

Evaluation of the project was done at the end of two years, and here are some excerpts:

"a. **From the Office of the Housing Coordinator of the City :** 'It is our feeling that there can be no question that the programme has been a worthwhile demonstration. In addition to the improvements which have already been made, the programme has given us a better insight of the problems involved and how such problems have been attacked by the leadership group'. The importance of staff leadership was underscored." (Pg. 53).

"b. **From Twenty-two Neighbours** . . . . About eleven were active in the programme; seven were involved on a limited basis; four were not participants. The records present a fascinating picture of concrete problems and improvements: houses repaired and painted, junk yards cleared; window boxes; traffic controlled; a new playground created; sidewalks repaired; new street lights . . . In addition to physical improvements, human relationships and attitudes were noted: renter-owner cooperation beginning; 'before nobody seemed to care what happened'; 'people living more decently'; 'once I was ready to move out; now things are quieter and we can sleep'; people more friendly. (Pg. 53).

"There was general awareness of the concrete problems remaining; nobody considered the task done.

"There was enthusiastic recognition of the essential part played by the Settlement Staff.

"A few generalizations stand out from the reading of these records. People in all categories were aware of improvements if these were close to them in their immediate neighbourhood. People in all categories mentioned the behaviour and attitudes of people as well as physical factors . . ." (Pg. 53).

"The Chairman of the Neighbourhood Council offered some correctives to this report, e.g., that there has arisen conflict and some antagonism, as well as friendliness, but perhaps that, too, is one measure of the effectiveness of some of the efforts" . . (Pg. 54).

"Only one person rated the recreation programme as more important than the community rehabilitation programme . . (Pg. 54).

"**All** stressed the importance of Settlement staff leadership. In fact, it was considered **essential**". (Pg. 54).

This project illustrates the following facts:

1. The key to the effectiveness of leisure-time programmes aimed at combating the ill effects of social disorganization, is the relationship of the leisure-time programme to the community served. The programme needs to be a vehicle for **all** the people in the community.

2. The programme needs to focus on helping people to deal in small groups with their real common needs—this includes, but does not stop at, recreation. It involves helping them to determine what that recreation shall be.

3. It needs to focus on the uncovering and development of real local leadership, including representation of those served, on the board of directors. The Board of the Settlement House in this record, in the three years prior to the project, had changed from being made up entirely of well-to-do white citizens, mainly women, to include some men, some Negroes, and some of the leaders of the neighbourhood served.

4. It needs staff. I shudder every time I hear of a gift of a recreation center. Our first and most pressing need is staff to go in and develop just this kind of process, so that the building, when it comes, is an expression of the community, not a degrading even though generous "hand-out".

All the above applies wherever we want to use recreation for character development and to improve the way people act towards one another—whether it be in hospitals, programmes for the aged, the armed forces, or community recreation centres.

Leisure time programmes which have the aim of preventing or combating **personal** disorganization, in contrast with **social** disorganization, involve the same ideas, but applied to small groups, in which it is possible to focus on each individual.

Now I should like to turn back to Sir Geoffrey Vickers for a closing quotation.

"We can spread the table of leisure with more varied opportunities than were ever known by the most privileged leisure class of the past . . Through these opportunities, more than any other, we can help to safeguard the independence and variety of the human person against the encroaching stereotype of industrial man".—(Taken from the Toronto Quarterly, January, 1957). (Pg. 217).

Adoptions

A Presentation from Three Points of View.

I. THE AGENCY AND THE CHILD.

By HAROLD CROWELL, Executive Director, Children's Aid Society, Windsor, Nova Scotia.

In considering adoption practices, I realize that few of the ideas that I will be presenting are originally my own. Many of my convictions stem from the teachings of former casework professors and this has been added to by the inspirations that have been provided by fellow workers and leaders in the child welfare field. However, in making acknowledgements it is difficult to thank all the people who have passed along their ideas, and I am sure the people I would single out would admit that they obtained much of their knowledge from the people who came before them, and so on back through the ages. Perhaps the best I can do is to quote from the one great Teacher who said: "Suffer little children, and forbid them not, to come unto me; for such is the kingdom of Heaven".

I would like to define adoption as a legal and social process by which the child of one pair of parents becomes the child of other parents. It confers upon the child and the adoptive parents substantially the same mutual rights and responsibilities as those which exist in the natural child relationship. It is probably the most permanent relationship that society, rather than nature, can create. Once consummated it can not lightly be put aside. This definition should make us all aware of the tremendous responsibility that has been given those who participate in the adoption of children.

Adoption is commonly thought of as a relatively recent practice. However its origin dates back many centuries. It was known to the ancient Egyptians, Babylonians, Assyrians, Greeks and Romans. The practice in our country is based on Roman law and has been authorized in every province of Canada. In spite of the fact that it has been practiced for centuries, it is only recently that a new and widespread interest in adoption has developed. This new interest and acceptance of adoption today is expressed through a steady flow of books and articles on this subject, and there has been a rapid rise in the number of couples turning to adoptions to satisfy their desires for a child. The United Nations and its study for the care of homeless children recently gave this subject special attention. This recent interest has provided us with a greater understanding of what is involved in adoption and has also focused attention upon the practices and services being carried out by the agencies engaged in adoption placements. Our understanding and concern that children have a home of their own has also brought to light the needs of the handicapped children. I am sure that most of our agencies have accepted the right of the handicapped child to an adoption home, but who, because of the lack of homes for children who require greater expenditure of time and money to place, are being deprived of adoption. Unless we can do something to find homes for these children, many of them will have to remain in boarding homes and institutions until such time as they are able to go out on their own. For the older children especially, the need is urgent. Every month that slips by diminishes their chances of ever having a home of their own. We are all concerned about these children but what can we do to facilitate the placement of older children, the physically handicapped, and the child from the minority group.

One of the suggestions or questions to be considered today is whether agencies can find in the "less than perfect adoption application" something which may be preferable to long term foster care. It is rather difficult to deal with this question without knowing what is meant by the "less than perfect adoption application". Probably every agency has a different standard of what they will accept as a minimum in an adoption home. If we are rejecting applications because of a lack of material goods alone then perhaps we should become a little more flexible. Frankly I doubt very much if many agencies are turning down applications because they feel the adopting parents cannot adequately provide for the child. It has been my experience that very few people apply to take children who cannot provide for them.

This then leaves those applications which are rejected because we question the couples' capabilities of becoming good parents. If this is the basis of our rejection of applications, then I doubt very much if lowering our standard to accept these people is the answer to our problem. If a couple are unfit parents at the time of application then the placing of a child with them is not going to make them good parents. I realize that it is important that a child be given the same legal status as other children in the community but a child does not necessarily become part of a family simply because adoption papers are finalized. Adoptive parents must be capable of loving and accepting as their own, someone else's child. If they are incapable of doing this the child may be just as lonely as if he were in a foster home or institution, in which case at least, he would have the agency behind him. It could probably be argued that we are trying to place the less than perfect child and for that reason we should be prepared to accept the less than perfect parents. This, I am afraid, is a false comparison because the handicapped or older child needs much more help and understanding on the part of adoptive parents than the normal child, and for this reason such children need adoptive parents of a higher caliber rather than a lower. To reduce our standards for adoptive couples could also have a detrimental effect on inter-provincial adoptions.

The Board of Adoption of the Child Welfare League of America set forth the following minimum safe-guards and perhaps it will help if we consider them as a guide.

(1) "That the family asking for a child have a good home and a good family life to offer and that the prospective parents be well adjusted to each other".

(2) "That the child be wanted for the purpose of completing an otherwise incomplete family group in which he will be given support, education, loving care and a feeling of security, to which any child is entitled".

To accept anything less than this standard could be asking for future trouble and I believe that there may be other things that we could do that would increase the number of adoption homes that are made available to us.

In looking to the future I think that we can often borrow a chapter from the past. The strides that have been made in adoption in the past few years were made because agencies were convinced of the need to improve their adoption program. This, I believe, is the key to finding parents for "hard to place children" and the only way that many of them will ever have homes is by our continued endeavour to co-ordinate and raise the standards of our service. We can do this by improving our services to the natural parents, to the child and to the adopting parents, the three different parties concerned in every adoption.

Service to adoptive parents will be dealt with by another speaker and I would like to consider briefly the agency's services to the natural parents and to the child. The start of any adoption begins with our contact with the natural parents and a good casework service to these parents is the foundation of any good adoption program. This service should begin as early in pregnancy as possible, extending throughout pregnancy and continuing for a time post-natally. We should remember that the natural parents bring to the adoption situation not the problem of giving up the child but also the need to solve their own perplexities. For the unmarried mother especially, the agency has a responsibility to help her come to a decision regarding her child. The worker must constantly keep in focus a dual reality—the mother's own psychological need to keep her child and the demands of the outside world. The agency should be prepared to work out jointly with her the financial arrangements for the child while she is making her decision. She should be encouraged to give as much information as possible about the physical and mental health of both parents, as well as the family history. The worker's knowledge of the child begins with an evaluation of the factual information regarding the child's background. Agencies should endeavour to know as much as possible about the child's background and the observable characteristics following birth. These characteristics will have a bearing on the child's potentialities for the immediate future and is necessary if it is to be matched to a particular home. Importance of having a knowledge about the father as well as the mother is sometimes under-estimated.

In terms of heredity the child received half of his endowment from the father. A good casework service to the natural parents is also the best assurance that we can have against having to live through the horrors of making a placement and then having the mother change her mind. The importance of preventing the heartbreak and grief that comes along with such a situation does not need to be elaborated upon. The recently publicized case in the U.S. of the little Catholic girl that was being adopted by the Jewish couple should be convincing enough of what can happen when proper casework services are not provided for the natural mother.

In turning to our services for the child I think that again there are several things that we can do to win the confidence and respect of the public. First I would like to stress the value of early placements. If the heredity factors and the medical report are favorable we should endeavour to place the child as soon as the mother has had ample time to make a decision on relinquishment of her child. I think that there is a strong parental drive to adopt early, and placement in the first few months approximates as early as possible the relationship that exists between natural parents and their child. I realize that some children will have to be held longer than others, especially those with unfavourable family backgrounds or a child that was born with a physical handicap. For these children who are not placed soon after birth we should see that the care that they receive in the early months does not add to their handicap. It is very easy to become lax about receiving-home practices and we should always be aware of the number of children that we are expecting one woman or an institution to care for. The overcrowding of either is certainly going to cut down on the stimulation that these children so vitally need.

I question too, how fast a foster mother can get over the removal of a child from her home and take on the needs of a new child placed with her. Without proper attention and love these children are not going to develop at the average rate with the results that adoption is further delayed, and these children soon fall into the category of the "hard to place child".

The matching of a child to the adoption home is also of utmost importance to successful placement. I think that we are all agreed that we cannot put just any child in any adoption home. In making our selection we should evaluate the child on the basis of the medical doctor's report, psychologist's report and all the information that the foster mother can furnish. After weighing this data, the social worker should then decide on the suitability of the adoption home for the child. A similarity of certain characteristics is more likely to facilitate the child's integration into the family and help him to develop a feeling of kinship as well as identification with the parents. I have stressed this part of our program because I think that it will cut down on the number of children who get to be older children before they have an adoption home; I am equally firmly convinced of the need for us to develop our skills in placing the older children.

If we can develop our program for placing older children, we then have an opportunity to treat and in many cases overcome the physical handicap that some children are born with. Perhaps a case history would help to illustrate the adoptability of the older child. John was born in 1943 and is now approximately 14 years old. He and his brother and sister were made wards in 1946 when he was three years old, because of the poor home conditions under which they were living following the sentencing of his father to the penitentiary. John was placed in a foster home with his sister where he remained for two years. He was then moved to another foster home following the illness of the former foster parent. He remained in the second foster home until he was ten years old and was then removed following a disturbance in school in which he sauced the teacher and the foster mother felt that she could no longer cope with him. He was then moved to a third foster home where there were several young natural children. Through all the moves Ralph continued to make excellent progress in school and could be described as getting along fairly well in his third foster home. He is a very attractive boy with blond hair, fair complexion and a winning smile combined with a winning personality which helped him to make friends very easily. In 1956 another agency made an adoption home available that was willing to take an older child. After weighing the pros and cons they decided that they would like to meet John with the idea of proceeding towards adoption. John was then 13 years old and when presented with the idea of adoption, his chief concern was whether the people would really want him as their son. He was certainly very enthused with the idea of having a home of his own but wondered about living in a city after having lived in small communities all of his life. All through the adoption preparation I was amazed at the way he accepted the move and how well he worked out the problems of adjustment that he encountered. Next month John will be legally adopted and there is a very strong bond between him and his parents. This adoption was made possible through inter-agency co-operation and because there was a special couple who had the understanding and patience to deal with an adolescent who was starting to reach out for his independence. Having a home of his own came very late for John and perhaps an incident that happened will help to describe the things children miss when not adopted. Shortly after his placement with the couple, a mutual friend was visiting and when John asked his mother to read him a bedtime story, the visitor informed John that he was old enough to be reading his own bedtime stories. John responded very quickly that he could read the stories but for 13 years he had never had a mother to read to him.

The adoption of the older child, the physically handicapped child and the child from the minority racial group are much more time consuming than the adoption of normal infants. To place children from either of these groups almost requires a special or an unique adoption home.. The majority of older children that I have had experience in placing were adopted by people in their late 40's or early 50's. Actually many natural parents are this old when their children are between the ages of five and ten and, I believe, it is to these people in the older age group that we are going to have to turn for homes for the older child.

We have been able to place two children with mixed racial background but again the home was somewhat unusual in that one of the parents was also of mixed racial origin which corresponded to the characteristics of the child. In placing children from these groups we should keep in mind the strong desire that every child has to have a home of his own, as this can often be the motivation that helps to make the placement successful.

From an administrative point of view agencies must have the necessary funds to carry on a successful adoption program. They need a trained and skillful staff who must be willing to do some pioneering in adoptions, and with a realization that every placement is going to require a lot of effort and hard work on their part. I believe that it would also be helpful if a central clearing house was established in each of the Maritime Provinces. This could facilitate inter-provincial placements and make available homes from areas where there are no children to fill them.

I am sure that if we make a concerted endeavour to build a better adoption program, the couples willing to adopt would increase. To-day we stand on the threshold of a new era in adoption and we, in the Maritimes, cannot feel that we have adequately fulfilled our responsibilities as long as there is a child living a lonely life in an institution or a foster home, who could benefit by having adoptive parents of his own.

II. WAYS AND MEANS OF FINDING ADOPTION HOMES

By EUGENE MacDONALD,

Director of Child Welfare, Department of Welfare,
Prince Edward Island.

While considering the topic suggested for this particular panel discussion, I thought it important to examine our adoption practices in relation to the adoptive applicant. All child-placing agencies have policies set up whereby studies are conducted to evaluate the adoptive applicant. These procedures apply to all adoptive applicants whether they are considering adopting an infant or a hard to place child. The emphasis is somewhat different for those interested in an older child. Some of the problems related to children can be discussed only hypothetically where an infant is involved. The older child, however, is not a child who may at some future date have temper tantrums, lie or steal or who may later ask questions about his own background. This is a child whose problems will have to be accepted, understood and immediately faced.

For any child, whether he be an infant, or the hard to place child, we are interested in couples who are emotionally mature, who have faced their childlessness and who can be warm and giving parents to a child not born to them. The problems they will be asked to handle with an older or handicapped child are different from those they would encounter in an infant but the qualities necessary to meet them are the same.

Our thinking has changed from the earlier days of child placement, when a home was selected on the basis of the family's ability to provide a pleasant home, adequate space and financial security. No longer do we think of an adoptive couple as doing a favour to a child and Agency by agreeing to adoption. Most agencies have dropped completely any guarantees of a perfect child and, most important, they have developed the conviction that they do not have a responsibility to guarantee a perfect child. Rather, they see that having children naturally or through adoption, involves risk. There are no guarantees of life and there is no reason for adoption to be an exception.

There is a difference, I think, between an Agency's responsibility to the adoptive applicants and to the child for whom the Agency has accepted the responsibility for placement. As much as we want to meet the needs of "would be" parents by placing a child with them, they do not have a right to a child in the sense that a child has a right to a home. However, the adoptive applicants have a right to apply, and a right to a fair and impartial consideration. The Agency has a responsibility for exploring every possible means of finding the best possible adoptive parents.

Let us consider the factors that seem important to us as we think about the applicant's suitability as an adoptive parent. To understand the motives of people wishing to adopt a child cannot be overestimated. It is probably the most decisive element in the success or failure of adoption. They may wish to adopt in an effort to patch up a family relationship with one another. They may be moved by a sudden ill-considered impulse. We know of the couple who came to us who have recently lost an own child. Undoubtedly, their depth of feeling belongs to one whom they have not yet been able to let go. And, the wife who is sure that once a child is in the home, her husband cannot help but love him. We, however, are perhaps most familiar with the couple who have thought, talked and read about adoption before reaching the point of an active step. They have talked with family and intimate friends. They have definite knowledge of incapability of having own children. All of this they share easily with the Social Worker. However, not all applicants are at this point of emotional readiness. We recognize that it is difficult for people to come and request, often with humility, for something that one should have as his own. What are the attitudes of the couple toward their infertility? We need to evaluate how people have learned to live with this knowledge. Is it still so painful that they are unable to discuss it? Do they consider it a disgrace? We also need to question the readiness of persons who cannot tell a child about his adoption—or, who hesitate to show their interest in adoption with family and friends because they wish to conceal their infertility. Unless these questions are faced, frustration continues, and an adopted child will not be given the healthy environment that we wish for him. He will only be a symbol of the parents' frustrations.

Their telling of the steps taken prior to coming to the Agency, the knowledge of what has brought them at this particular time—all of this will offer interesting insight to the Social Worker. The applicants' ability to talk about their plans with family and friends—their thoughtfulness about the origin of children available, are indicative of their readiness to adopt. Their readiness to share information about themselves lets us know too, that they have a trust in the Agency. Two more points, I would like to mention at this time, and one is the need for applicants to cling rigidly to a concept they have of a child, or can they move to the point that children rarely come according to exact specification. And, does the time involved in the adoption investigation and waiting for a child, need to be controlled by the applicants and does it all seem quite unnecessary to them. The kind of relationship they are able to sustain with the Agency is really, in part, what they will be able to put into a relationship with an adopted child. An office interview, whenever possible, affords the most useful opportunity for the applicant and Agency to exchange information for a beginning relationship. It is a time when the Applicants, too, have a chance to evaluate the Agency. They want to know where the children come from—their ages, what does the agency know about these children. They also want to know what protection an Agency provides for adoptive families.

Moving on to the home study which, like the application interview, has a specific content—it is the time that the Social Worker has the opportunity of getting to know the applicants better and in their home setting. I have sometimes thought it would simplify home studies if a value system could be devised so that those applicants receiving required numbers of "Yeses" would be accepted. There is merit, however, in keeping in mind, that certain information has to be secured before we are able to accept or reject. What do we feel is important to know? Briefly—are these mature happy people who are able to give and receive affection. Were the family groups from which they came secure, and ones where they can remember happy childhoods? It is not solely a question of what an individual's background was but what he did with that background. Does the man fulfill his role as breadwinner and satisfy his wife's needs? And, likewise, does she fulfill her role as a homemaker? Have they demonstrated an interest in and loved and cared for other people's children? Attitudes on religion, education, recreation and child training, are all to be explored. Are their attitudes toward illegitimacy well thought out and do they have understanding and a good feeling about the unmarried mother who gives up her child. Are they accepting also, for the child from a broken home and are they understanding of the inadequacies of parents whose children come into Agency care? As we work with these would-be parents, we are always well aware of one of the concepts of social casework which is our belief in people's ability to grow and change.

How we use references, I believe, is important as part of an adoption home study. These are the friends who will be important to the child. We learn the respect and confidence these friends have for the adoptive applicant. Is there a feeling of acceptance for an adopted child as we talk to those giving references?

Applicants have a right to know as early as possible whether they are to be accepted or not. If rejection seems in their best interests as well as for the child, then this should be done as quickly, kindly and honestly as possible. At times, assistance can be sought from family doctor, psychiatrist or Family Agency to help with rejections.

A careful, diagnostic study and evaluation of the adoptive family serves as a basis for determining the kind of child to be placed in their home. Our conviction is that this study is of primary importance. We need to find surer ways of evaluating people's motivations and their feeling qualities. We can be fooled by a couple's success with an own child or with one they adopted in infancy.

When considering the hard to place child our Agency has had more experience with placement of older children than with children with physical and emotional handicaps. We have had success with placement of children with mixed racial background. We have not had too much difficulty finding homes for twins. We have placed babies with heart murmurs, club feet, wryneck.

When considering adoptive parents for older children, we may consider the people who are too old to meet the age requirements for infants. Older couples can be considered, provided they have the flexibility and resiliency needed to care for healthy, active youngsters. It is important to know that older adopting parents' health is such that security will be ensured for the adopted child.

The adoptive parents considered for the hard to place child, should be people who have had some first hand knowledge with the ways of children—whether it be from having shared the give and take of a large family or from raising other children, their own or adopted. We look for patience, warmth, flexibility, maturity and above all, acceptance. We need parents with plenty of energy. As many adoptive parents have related, they wondered if their physique could take it any longer, during those early months. We need people with a sense of humor which will help them survive the first months of placement while the child tests their love for him. We have found most of these people to have a sincere, spiritual faith which gives them a comfortable philosophy of life and a basic confidence in human nature. They are people who are able to co-operate with an Agency. Again, it is important for these would-be parents to have positive feeling for the biological parents of the child to be adopted. They can more easily then make a positive identification with the child himself.

We cannot place infants with all the families who request them but it is our job to help these families to understand that there are other children who desperately need homes. Our experience has been that the applicants can move from original request but need help in doing so. In our studies it is important to be aware of flexible attitudes on part of adoptive applicants so that we can evaluate when they are able to accept a child different from the one envisioned.

I think of the couple who adopted a seven year old boy through our Agency who were able to accept him for who he was and let him adjust to their hearts and home at his own pace. When this couple made application to the Agency, the father was 48 and the mother, 43. They felt in the beginning that an older child was what they wanted—because of their ages. Both of them had had a good deal to do with young boys in their own families and work in the Community. We felt a child in this home would not be expected to respond to an over amount of affection. This couple showed consideration and seemed to have good feeling for each other. Health certificates were A-1, finances secure—did not own home but would at end of three years. Norman was placed with this couple on July 9th, 1955 and the adoption was completed the following September. He was a child of an unmarried mother. Her I. Q. was found to be 69 and we had no factual information regarding his father. Norman was placed in a foster home when one month old and remained there until placement to his adoption home. Actually Norman could have been (I am quite sure) placed at a much younger age. His I. Q.

when he was six years of age showed above average intelligence. The preparation for the child, foster parents (with letting him go) and for the new parents on the part of the Social Worker, takes a good deal of understanding and good planning. Norman's adoptive parents were understanding about previous foster parents and had only positive feelings toward them. This meant a good deal to Norman in making a good adjustment to new parents.

Only within the last year we placed a four year old girl whose I. Q. was within low average limits. Her adoptive parents, at time of application, were, adopting father 38 and adopting mother, 42. In the beginning they thought of adopting a child, a little girl from ages one to two years. When learning more about the children available, they were able to talk in terms of a child who could be older than two years. One of the helpful qualities of this couple was their ability to co-operate with the Agency. The adoptive father is a brick layer and his earnings are never over $200.00 a month. Neither one attended high school. They do not own their home but do own a small summer cottage. Darlene was four years old when placed in this home. She had one other previous adoption placement with people who were unable to accept her. This child's mother also had a low I. Q. and nothing known about her father's background. She has made a good adjustment to her adoption home and her adoptive parents have shown their ability to give her the love and care needed for her development.

Another placement was that of a part Indian child with a couple of Spanish racial origin. Laura was placed at the age of ten months when her I. Q. showed 105. Her background history was most sketchy. Laura's adoptive parents previously adopted a boy. They were most flexible in their specifications for a child. The adoptive mother came from a large family herself. We felt they were capable of giving emotional as well as material security to an adopted child. Laura is now 2½ years and is an attractive bright child who feels quite safe and secure with her adoptive family.

We need to give support and encouragement to the couples who take the hard to place children into their homes—prior and during early months of placement. They are usually so ready to become parents to the new child that it is difficult for them to understand what a slow process it is for a child to reach the point of feeling that this is his own home. We have found it helpful whenever possible for the Social Worker who does the home study to continue with the adoptive family through probationary period.

Perhaps the most important consideration in planning this kind of placement is that everyone concerned should be as sure as it is possible to be that the new relationship will work out. If the adoption fails, the damage done to the child may take years to correct. It is more time consuming with all kinds of difficulties involved. Whenever possible I would like to stress the importance of early adoption placements. We must use our imagination and courage for the child's sake so that he may have the opportunity of a family of his own which is his right.

A factor which takes precedence over all of what has been said is the Social Worker's own feeling. If we do not have conviction ourselves we will not be able to gain the confidence of our adoptive applicants. We must sincerely believe that adoption is right for children and they can use adoption homes effectively. We must also have conviction about the adoptive applicant and belief in him as a person who can become the right kind of parent for an adopted child.

III. THE ADOPTING APPLICANTS

By ISABEL McLELLAN,

Casework Supervisor, Department of Public Welfare, Nova Scotia.

The search for adoptive parents for the less than perfect or difficult-to-place child has recently been receiving special attention and study from most of our adoption agencies.

In theory it is generally agreed that the purpose of adoption is to provide homes and healthy family development for children who have been permanently deprived of their own families. In practice, however, adoption agencies have, all too often, concerned themselves primarily with providing desirable applicants with children of good heredity and at least average intellectual and physical endowments. This practice may have grown out of a need, on the part of the agencies to recruit applicants and it may have resulted from a professional insecurity and a consequent desire to gain public recognition. Whatever the cause, this applicant-focused practice seems to have resulted in highly satisfied adoptive parents and great increases in the number of couples applying for children. From all this a new and possibly unforseen situation developed.

An adoption-conscious public clamoured for more and more babies but the social work conviction, of a few years ago, that adoptive families were unwilling to accept the normal risks encountered by parents in having children of their own, contributed, in no small measure, to the existence of long waiting lists of applicants while older and slightly handicapped children were forced to grow up in boarding homes and institutions. Agencies gradually lost public favor and were criticized on all sides for hoarding children, imposing too rigid standards and subjecting applicants to endless red tape. Unfortunately, much of this criticism was true although it often reflected a lack of understanding of the values and principles held by social work in regard to adoption. Perhaps professional social work is as much responsible for public hostility resulting from misunderstanding of good practices as that caused by unsound practices or inadequate services. Adoption agencies are beginning to look closely at their programs and it would seem that the first step towards improved standards should be a re-establishment of relationship with the public.

Our panel is concerned with the essentials of a sound adoption program for the difficult-to-place child. I believe that, from past experiences, agencies have learned that this, like all good adoption programs, must be child-centred. Those engaged in adoption work must see as their first responsibility the finding for children of parents who can offer them love, protection and a reasonable opportunity for healthy development. Successful placement of older and handicapped children calls for great skill and wisdom and this can only be expected from trained, experienced professional workers. There is need for workers with imagination enough to see the joys and satisfactions a handicapped child can give to parents and to realize that couple applying to adopt are indicating by their applications a degree of willingness to accept a challenge.

Adoption agencies are servants of the community and as such have a responsibility to keep the public informed of the principles and values that are held by social work and it is their job to help families to understand that while the kind of child they request is not available for placement there are other children who desperately need adoptive homes.

Even with an enlightened and sympathetic public the problem of finding homes for difficult-to-place children is, perhaps, the greatest challenge facing adoption agencies to-day. However, there is good reason to be optimistic.

Many homefinding programs have been developed and there are numerous reports, articles and statistics testifying to successful placements. Close observation of children and assistance from doctors, psychiatrists and other experts have been found invaluable in enabling agencies to assess children's development and to help parents take the risk.

At least two provinces of Canada are finding an Adoption Clearance service to be a useful homefinding device. This service is an organized method by which public and private agencies exchange descriptive information both on children hard-to-place and prospective adoption parents interested in receiving such children for adoption. It has been suggested that the possibility of establishing a national clearance service should be explored.

An interesting experiment in homefinding by an informal community committee in the United States did much to interpret the needs of handicapped children and to interest families in applying for such children. Lois Raynor describes the activities of this committee in an article in the Child Welfare Journal, April, 1953, entitled "Extending Adoption Opportunities for Negro Children". Perhaps a brief summary could be given here.

A social agency assisted by a minister of a local church organized a group of interested citizens, with a knowledge of their community, into a committee for the purpose of helping negro children find adoption homes. Radio broadcasts and interviews as well as newspaper articles and pictures were used to publicize the story of children in need of parents. Stories of successful and happy placements gave the assurance that there were rewards as well as risks.

Following the lead other communities formed committees and new methods of publicity were employed. Television programs were arranged with adoption agency staff and committee members appearing on local networks. Agency picture leaflets, brochures and announcements were distributed in offices, churches and other places used by those who might be able to help the program. Councils, Federations, fraternal and veterans' societies were contacted.

A contest was sponsored and a valuable prize offered for the best essay on the subject "How to Interest More Coloured Families in the Adoption of Children". Sermons, announcements and notices in Church bulletins stimulated interest as did billboard, bus and subway advertising.

The results of this experiment were most gratifying, but it is impossible to evaluate the effect of any one method of publicity. It was found, however, that personal contact was the most effective means of creating goodwill and a favourable response.

An article appeared in Canadian Welfare, September, 1956, written by Eleanor Lemon, entitled "Achieving Adoption Through Publicity". This article describes a courageous and rewarding public-education venture by the Children's Aid and Infants' Homes of Toronto and shows the value of careful planning in adoption publicity programs.

An informative discussion on the use of television to acquaint the public with the adoption problems of the child with special needs was written by Harriet Friske and you may refer to it in the November, 1956, issue of the Child Welfare Journal.

Adoption agencies everywhere are becoming conscious of the value of interpretation and are accepting the responsibility and challenge of educating the public to the needs of the less than perfect child. Magazine articles depict happy endings to stories of long waits for homes by handicapped children but agency records and statistics tell an even more dramatic story of what has already been achieved. We have learned from those who have given us leadership that there is a great potential interest in children and that people will respond to the needs of all children when this interest is awakened.

Juvenile Corrections

Two of Three Papers Presented at This Panel Discussion.

I. DELINQUENCY PROBLEMS IN AN INSTITUTIONAL SETTING.

By SISTER MARY ESTHER, R.G.S.

Supervisor, Provincial Convent of the Good Shepherd, Halifax, N.S.

There are in general two types of socially maladjusted children, the unsocial and the anti-social. Maladjustments resulting from the development of unsocial tendencies consist of physical, mental, and emotional reactions detrimental to the growth and development of the child's personality. Maladjustment resulting from the acquisition of anti-social traits consists of moral, mental, and emotional reactions which exert a pernicious influence on the formation of the child's character. These problem children are usually designated as behaviour problems (unsocial) or delinquent or wayward (anti-social).

Socially maladjusted children usually do not have to be discovered for they make themselves known as problems through their unsocial behaviour and their anti-social conduct. They give evidence in their behaviour and conduct of disintegration of personality and malformation of character.

The correction and remedial treatment of delinquency is rendered more effective by early detection of and adequate attention to the symptoms of this type of anti-social conduct. In order to correct and to remedy delinquency, it is essential to ascertain the origins through which the anti-social conduct began and the circumstances and incentives which contributed to delinquency. In order to correct and remedy delinquency, provision must be made for wholesome child life, for favourable environmental and developmental influences, for suitable moral training and religious instruction, for training, in self-control.

Juvenile Court

The most common method of studying and providing individualized remedial treatment for delinquency is the Juvenile Court. When a problem child is referred to the Juvenile Court—it must be ascertained if this child can be worked with on **Probation**—or in other words, if the child can be worked with in his own home environment. The goal of probation is to bring about a new outlook or perspective in the life of the child, a new set of habits, a different attitude towards society and those with whom he comes in contact. The probation officer acquaints himself thoroughly with the problem and the program differs with each delinquent, depending on the individual needs. The probation officer understands the family, interprets the delinquency of the child to the parents, interprets the family attitudes to the child, puts the delinquent in touch with constructive forces in the community and helps the child gain a wholesome attitude towards life and its responsibilities. The child is usually required to report to the probation officer and, if this is neglected without good reason, the delinquent oftentimes is committed to the institution.

Foster Home or Boarding Home Care for Delinquents

For some children the only type of treatment which will be effective is one which will take the child out of its old environment as some familial factors make handling in their own home environment impossible. Placement in a foster home while re-educative measures are taken with regard to the child and family are often the means of handling this problem. The distinct object in view in this placement is to make the child a member of the home in which it is placed. We would mention here that this type of placemest is best suited for children not yet in their teens. Placing problem children or children with problems in a foster home setting requires very careful selecting of foster parents for their part in this plan calls for unselfish effort and understanding of the needs of such children, training, and firm discipline.

As you will readily realize, this type of foster home which can meet the needs of a delinquent is not too easily available. It is my feeling that too many children find their way into institutions who could be dealt with very successfully in a foster home setting. If probation or foster home care has been found ineffective or has not met the needs of the particular individual, the child is usually turned over to the institution. While this often happens, it is not always the case, as in many instances it is quite evident from the outset that institutional care is the need of the young person in question.

Institutional Care Environment

In considering institutional care for Juvenile Delinquents, let us deal first with the matter of environment or the physical aspect of treatment in an institution. The environment in which the teenager finds herself should be one of colour, cheer, and comfort. On arrival this cheery, colourful, warm atmosphere does much psychologically to reassure a girl of the possibility of normal homey living. Attractive surroundings, which are eye-appealing to any young person, help to slacken the tension and put at ease one who has been torn up by the roots from her natural setting and placed in an institution. From this, we can realize the importance of colour therapy in the environmental phase of treatment.

Staff

The most important factor in any institution, but in particular in a correction institution is STAFF. Trained personnel is the ideal but we must face the reality that most institutional staff is untrained. Unfortunately there is no provision in Schools of Social Work for specialized training in work with Juvenile Delinquents. This is a great need which the Schools of Social Work must recognize and eventually meet. Any institution, therefore, that wants to uphold and improve its standards should establish an in-service training program. Such a program is necessary for all types and categories of staff and should be continuous and regular. Work with human beings can be done efficiently only if the worker is engaged in a continuous learning process. Only as people continually scrutinize their own work and are able to sit back and assess it with humility, alertness, and the curiosity of learners can they carry out this work successfully. This is as true for trained as for untrained staff. It is, of course, especially true for the staff of a corrections institution, who stand so much in the foreground in the work with problem children. Staff have to be thoroughly acquainted with the traditions and ideals of the institution. They must be orientated to the policies and practices of the institution and the way the institution conceives how a job should be done. It is essential that staff persons be acquainted with the type of children they are going to work with. In a training school setting these will be juvenile delinquents, that is children and young people who for a variety of reasons have not conformed to demands of social living as defined by law. It must be understood that these children have to be helped in their adjustment to the requirements of community living so as to take again their rightful place in normal community life. Therefore, any staff person in a corrections institution must be part of a team in some capacity in order to do a repair job on the personalities confined to their care.

People have to be "really on the job" for "on the job training." It might be well to start new staff by giving them some responsibility in the lesser tasks. They should be placed in situations where their mistakes will not cause far-reaching or irreparable damage but rather where they can be corrected without too much difficulty. These situations in which decisions must be made should in the beginning relate more in the manipulation of things rather than people. By thus placing persons in such situations, we will develop much needed qualities in them. It is useless to tell a staff member to learn to take responsibility—we learn responsibility by taking responsibility, and it is the duty of the director to give it.

A very helpful device for training on the job in a corrections institution is through the use of special consultants from the disciplines as psychiatry, psychology, and psychiatric social work, Such consultants serve not only as consultants in the handling of individual children, but serve as well as instructors for staff.

In our institution, we have such a clinical team working with us. This team affords not only a diagnostic resource but also one for training. From our experience, we have found that the use of psychiatric consultants participating in staff discussion of a case and expounding certain elementary principles governing normal and abnormal behaviour and delineating the more typical characteristics of some of our seriously maladjusted children has been a real help to all the staff, but more especially to the newcomers who are being integrated into the program.

We are only too aware of the fact that even the most competent staff will not remain skilled without further stimulation and learning. We likewise know that the institution has a responsibility of providing its staff with a well integrated learning experience which will stimulate growth. It, therefore, becomes our duty through a sustained effort to plan a program so as to stimulate continued growth for the development and for the integration of all the staff in order that they may contribute more effectively to the re-education of the delinquent and of the problem children confided to our care.

Diagnosis, Treatment, and Privileges Leading up to Discharge

A child comes to us because he or she has misused freedom. The conflict over the rights of parents or society to curtail her activities led to the removal of the child from the home and the community. But what has caused the child to act in such a way, that the very thing she most prizes—her freedom—has been taken from her?

Only after we have answered these questions as far as we can and looked at what this answer might involve for each individual child can we begin to plan towards re-establishing new freedom.

It is known that when a child is placed in a correctional institution, we can, through punitive measures, restrictions, and threats of a longer deprivation of freedom make the child conform. The discharge of a child who has felt this coercion, bits of kindness, and little understanding of the basic needs, will on being made free return to the old patterns of behaviour, because we have not diagnosed the cause of her problem and hence we have not been able to apply the treatment needed.

Each individual young person confided to our care must be viewed as a unique person. Her emotional and social experiences have to be evaluated if we are to see clearly how best to restore to her the right to freedom and the ability to make good use of it. It is essential that we learn some of the adolescent's own values and goals regarding freedom, as well as the extent to which these values and goals conform to the standards of the community, those of her home, and ours.

The basis or criteria that we must use, is to understand as far as we can, what lies behind the child's delinquent behaviour. What need of the child does this behaviour fulfill? What meaning has it for her and what purpose does it fulfill? Is it just a way of hitting back at those she believes have injured her or does it symbolize a deep inner conflict rooted in the unconscious. In other words, we ask ourselves—What kind of child is this? What does she need? The answer to these questions is the starting point of treatment and since privileges and freedoms are a very essential part of treatment, these questions must be answered before we can consider what type of privilege and freedom we will grant. All of the planning must be focused on the premise that the child is to return to the community better prepared to understand herself, her situation, and consequently better able to handle freedom and independence.

This would need to be considered at three important levels, in relation to our thinking around diagnosis, treatment, and preparation for discharge.

Diagnosis or understanding why the child is unable to adjust in her community and home, includes the consideration of the immediate situation leading up to her removel from the environment.

Likewise it includes a gathering of information about the child's past experiences, parents—and their attitudes and expectations, school and other social institutions, as well as the gang. We should also know some of the attitudes we can expect the girl to show towards adults, others in the group, authority, interests, hobbies, and so forth.

If the delinquent is to be "re-educated" in the better use of her freedom and helped to handle situations more successfully when she is left to decide for herself—the fundamental motives of her behaviour must be sought.

Only in the light of such knowledge, can we select and apply, with some measure of accuracy, the right kind and amount of freedom and grant privileges suited to the individual girl's needs and ability. Freedom and privileges then become therapeutic devices in the total treatment program enabling the girl to fit herself ultimately for complete independence.

We are all aware that the delinquent who is a victim of social forces can and should be treated very differently from the one who is psychologically disordered. For example, on the basis of our diagnosis, we would plan the granting of freedom and privileges leading up to discharge, very differently for the delinquent whose anti-social behaviour such as stealing, is due to the lack of superego and another whose thefts are parts of an obsessional psycho-neurosis. The privilege to go to town shopping which would help the one would drive the other into further delinquencies.

To set any worthwhile treatment goals, we must use our understanding of basic motives of behaviour. Conclusions, however, will not be immediately reached upon the arrival of reports from other agencies, psychiatrists, social workers, teachers or other interested persons. Much will be learned through careful observation during the first period after committal.

If the general attitude of the institution and of the staff is friendly and accepting, the adolescent's defensiveness and reticence to talk about situations, her feelings, likes, hates, fears, etc., will drop. This talking differs from that initial bragging and belligerent testing and talk that we often encounter. Our understanding of the delinquent will thereby be deepened because she will be then expressing what she wants, the goals she has, if any, and how she means to attain them. We will learn more of her true feelings around freedom and privileges—whether, for instance, she is relieved at not being obliged to make decisions for herself (hence requiring encouragement to do so, by giving her small bits of freedom) or whether she feels that anyone who curtails her drives or desires, must be treated as an enemy to be vigorously opposed.

In working with delinquents certain values must be affirmed and certain limits met. There is a difference between setting limits and imposing restrictions. Setting limits is a therapeutic device, based on diagnostic considerations. It takes cognizance of the changing needs of the adolescent, within her total life situation; it is flexible and geared to her capacity to handle certain aspects of her behaviour.

Authority should not be exercised arbitrarily—rather it should be used discriminately to further the over-all aim of treatment and the goal towards which all program in planned; i.e., re-adjustment to community living.

The capacity of the delinquent to enter into this re-adjustment not only depends on the extent and nature of her particular pathology—behaviour and personality conflicts—but also on social, cultural, and familial factors.

We are aware that the focus of all training school program should primarily include preparation for the adolescent to live in the community outside. Hence the importance of manipulating the program by every practical means at our disposal in order to include certain aspects of community living experience.

This planning of program should be geared to the realities of the kind of life the adolescent will live after leaving the institution. Consideration should also be given to her vocational aptitudes.

We are faced with the problem of keeping the atmosphere of the institution therapeutically orientated to the regime of life in a normal community so that transition from the institution back into the community, school, home, etc., is not one of throwing the delinquent without preparation or support, back into difficulties and temptations.

Religion plays a most important role in our planning for reeducation and adjustment, and it can be a powerful aid in the proper use of freedom and privileges. It is not a system of out-grown prohibitions as many would be inclined to believe. It is rather a living force that should cut across every field of human activity.

Many problems can be solved satisfactorily along the lines of Christian principles. Since our purpose of religious training is not merely to acquaint children wth doctrines of faith but principally to mold their conduct on them, it becomes a necessary part of re-education.

The vital role of the family must be recognized, just as we cannot treat the adolescent in isolation from the community, we cannot treat her as a social entity separate from her family group. Whether we find it desirable or not she brings her family and other close relationships along with her to the institution and they continue to exert a strong influence. The reaction of parents and their attitudes towards the school and the program, may reinforce or detract from our efforts to help. The importance and place of parents and family in relation to the delinquent's problems and re-adjustment can be clearly seen from the prodigious report on "Unravelling Juvenile Delinquency" by Gleucks—quoting from their conclusions on why children become delinquent—"We have seen that among the forces that count most in determining whether or not a boy will be conditioned to anti-social behaviour, is the home atmosphere and especially the intimate relationships of the parent and child." It would seem, therefore, we must endeavour to thoroughly immunize the child to clear up the focal point of contagion if we would prevent a relapse.

The success of all such programming dealing with delinquency problems in an institutional setting, of course, hinges on selectivity, amount of staff, time available, careful planning and follow up.

I hope these thoughts will produce some discussions.

II. OTHER ASPECTS.

By J. A. GRANDY,

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I would like to quote from an article by Samuel Noah Kramer appearing in the National Probation and Parole Association Journal, April, 1957. "The First Example of Juvenile Delinquency in the Recorded History of Men". "If juvenile delinquency is a serious problem in our day, it might be consoling to know that things were not too different in ancient times. Wayward, disobedient, and ungrateful children were the bane of their parents thousands of years ago just as they are today. They roamed the streets and boulevards and loitered in the Public Squares, perhaps even in gangs, in spite of the fact that they were supervised by a monitor. They hated school and education and made their fathers sick to death with their everlasting gripes and complaints. All this we learn from the text of a Sumerian essay, which was only very recently pieced together. The seventeen clay tablets and fragments on which the essay was inscribed actually date back some 3700 years; its original composition may go back several centuries earlier".

Is it not remarkable that in 3700 years we have learned so little about the treatment of juvenile delinquency? This will serve to remind us once again of the complex mechanism of the human individual personality. I doubt if the world lasts another 3700 years that we will know all the answers to this complex and vexing problem of Juvenile Delinquency.

While we certainly have a lot to learn yet I think we can say that we have learned some things about dealing with delinquent children.

The Public concept of delinquency is very different from ours, that is of those of us who work in this field. To start with it is generally felt that delinquents are undersized or under-aged criminals; this is not so. They are children in need of help. Our concern is not so much with the offence the child commits, but rather the underlying cause which leads to his delinquency. Of course the causes of delinquency are manifold but generally juvenile delinquency results from our failure to satisfy the basic needs of children and youth. These basic needs that are not being satisfied are:

1. Love and affection.
2. A sense of belonging.
3. A sense of security.
4. Opportunity for growth and achievement.
5. Recognition.

Delinquency in Canada declined markedly since 1943, which was the peak year. In that year there was 11,750. Since then the number has declined steadily and has remained constantly at about 6,000 a year.

Juvenile court reports show that the majority of boys are referred for stealing or committing malicious mischief.

Most girls are brought in for being unmanageable, running away or for sexual immorality.

In a study of 500 delinquent boys by Sheldon and Elinor Gluick the fact was brought out that the age at which the largest number first appeared in court was between 11 and 13 years. Ninety percent of these same children were having marked difficulty adjusting to normal social life before they were 11 years old.

Almost half of the group were giving noticeable signs of becoming delinquent at the age of 8 years or younger "Delinquency begins early".

We must keep in mind that delinquency is primarily a local or community problem. The situation is worse in some areas than in others, but everywhere it is difficult and disturbing.

The only sensible attack on juvenile delinquency is to attempt by every means possible to prevent delinquency from arising but at the same time be prepared to treat it whenever and wherever it occurs. The community must be aware of its responsibility for the prevention of delinquency, but we have to face first things first. A lot of boys and girls have already gotten into trouble with the law. The only kind of prevention we can accomplish with them is to prevent their going on to further misbehaviour.

These children need the kind of professional treatment that will help them to understand and work out their differences with the world around them—and teach them to live in that world as peaceful law-abiding citizens.

At the risk of over simplification we might say that almost all crime represents a short cut to an end. It is simply a more direct and quicker route to a desired goal. It may be either a short cut to emotional satisfaction or material gain (though it represents a great many other things besides). Children who become delinquent are unhappy for some reason or other. It is our job to find out what it is that is making them unhappy.

The question then arises. How are we to do it? There is unfortunately no easy way. There is no pill or medication or magic potion to bring about this change. There is only one method and that is through hard work. The police, the courts, probation officers, children's aid societies, social agencies, training schools already have a hard time with their present case loads. In spite of these limitations and handicaps which they constantly face, they are often successful in treatment. But we cannot expect them to do the job without greatly increased support.

The greatest single need is probably that for more and better trained personnel. Unmaking delinquency can be a complicated process—as complex as the way in which the delinquency came about. Treatment must be based on the child's individual needs. One child may need to be brought into a baseball team or may need someone to take an interest in his school work. Another may be deeply involved in a personality conflict with his family and his home environment necessitating a long period of individual treatment to help him make a social and personal adjustment.

We cannot attempt here to tell how that individual treatment should be carried out. Treatment necessitates an understanding of human behaviour—we must be able to understand why the child acts as he does. This sometimes is difficult to determine and even those with long training and experience are hard pressed sometimes to discover what is wrong in a particular case. This does not weaken the argument for trained personnel but instead points up the fallacy of dealing with delinquency or any other social evil for that matter with untrained or inexperienced personnel.

Most children charged with delinquency are apprehended by the police, some are referred to the courts by school, churches or social agencies, but most have their first contact with legal authority in the person of the policeman.

This is an important meeting, it can leave a lasting impression on the child, if he is intimidated and frightened he is apt not to respond very openly and willingly to efforts to help him. On the contrary he is apt to become defiant, rebellious or withdrawn and unreachable. We see here then a real necessity for training. The police officer must know how to work with the child. Here I would like to make to police officers, social workers or to anyone dealing with delinquents a few suggestions . . .

1. Treat the juvenile with consideration, remember that what he thinks of your conduct may influence his future attitude to be in favour of, or opposed to social and legal requirements.

2. Be friendly—most juveniles feel that the world is against them. Do not let your conduct further the development of an anti-social attitude in the child. Many juveniles are discouraged. They believe they are failures. You can't expect an undeveloped child to function as an adult.

3. Be firm—appeal to the child's intelligence, his reason, his sense of fairness.

4. Discover the child's problems if you can—his problems are as important to him as yours are to you. If you know his problem you may be able to help him.

5. Try to gain his confidence and respect—in attempting to determine his guilt or innocence with respect to any overt act, your chances are far better if he believes in you.

6. Remember that the child of today is the man of tomorrow

—a boy who hates a police officer because of his abusive attitude will have as a man little respect for him or for authority.

7. Be positive in your attitude—show the benefits that come from an attitude of conformity with lawful requirements rather than dwelling on the harmful efforts of anti-social behaviour.

8. Don't resort to vulgarity, profanity or obscenity. The use of such language cannot be tolerated and can do no good.

9. Don't brand juveniles—epithets such as "thief", "liar", "burglar" should never be used toward juveniles whether in custody or not—nothing is to be gained by it and there is definite indication that it is very injurious to the child.

10. Don't lose your temper—to do so is an admission of mental inferiority to the person being interrogated.

POLICE

The Police Officer is a very important person in this whole area of delinquency control. How to conduct himself with a child apprehended for delinquency is only the first step, in the training needed by a policeman. Many times a police officer acts independently in dealing with a particular case. He must act in a way that will give full protection to the community and at the same time benefit the child as far as possible. Faced with a minor delinquent behaviour on the part of a boy or girl he must decide on a course of action. Should the child be simply reprimanded or allowed to go his way? Should the parents be informed? Perhaps the child should be referred to a clinic, to a social agency, to a recreation group. Knowledge of the community can also help the policeman prevent delinquency. The police should be more familiar with community conditions than any other organized group. Through regular patrols and supervision of potentially harmful spots such as parks, bus stations, dance halls, skating rinks, movie houses, hotels, clubs, restaurants and taverns the police can help check promiscuous activities and protect young people from demoralizing influences. Much good work done by the police in these areas is overlooked and the public is unaware of the helpful aspects of police work. The only time the public hears about the police is when they are apprehending and charging an individual. (Perhaps the police should have a public relations department). Police officers have told me "we are the ones who have to do the dirty work and we get no credit for anything we do in a positive way in helping people."

In a number of communities in Canada and the U.S.A. there have been established special units for handling delinquent children within the police department. Usually these divisions or units are composed of specially trained men and women. They work only with juvenile delinquents. Their job is to prevent delinquency as well as to deal with the child who has already become delinquent.

An interesting demand by communities for trained juvenile police officers will undoubtedly result in more courses for juvenile police work being offered in Universities and police academies and schools.

DETENTION FACILITIES.

It might be advisable to have a place of detention—this is necessary in some cases. A detention home should have good physical qualities and the person caring for the child should be trained for the job. If a child must be held away from his home, the place of detention should provide a constructive atmosphere.

Ordinarily, during the period of delay between the laying of the charge and the date of the court hearing the child is allowed to return home. He is easily available to the court there as he would be anywhere else and he is usually better off at home if his parents can be trusted to care for him. Not all children can be returned to their homes, some homes are places that are morally and physically unsafe for them. Their parents may be abusive or neglectful. Others of these children might run away and do further harm if allowed to return home. These children are generally beyond the control of their parents.

This need for secure custody for certain children has led in some places to holding children in jail. This should not be tolerated in any community. Detention alone is an alarming and traumatic experience for a child. Jail then is a doubly-terrifying experience. Most of our jails are scarcely fit for adult inmates according to reports and yet children are confined in them. The Juvenile Delinquents Act prohibits it but in some places this is ignored. It is our duty as citizens to prevent such abuses. "In fact, detention should be a constructive experience for all the children who have to go through it. Instead of being a period of 'cold storage' or of punishment, such as a child might go through in jail, the detention period should be one in which the delinquent can get his bearings—find out what's ahead of him and begin to understand that there are people who want to help him correct his mistakes rather than punish him for them.

The delinquent child who comes to detention usually needs a bath and may have to be clothed, fed and given medical attention, his emotional needs require even greater attention.

A good foster home can serve very well as a place of detention for juveniles who cannot return to their own homes. Many places use this type of service and find it most satisfactory. This of course pre-supposes that one can find a really understanding couple who can deal with a child of this nature.

JUVENILE COURT.

The juvenile court judge has a heavy responsibility in dealing with these children. He first must decide if the child is delinquent in terms of the law. If he is, the judge then must try to find out what made him delinquent so that he can prescribe a plan of treatment to help him. It is very evident that the judge of a juvenile court must have considerable training for his job and also that he must have a skilled staff working with him and still he must have resources in the community to call upon or he cannot function properly.

Effective treatment depends upon resources. The importance of having treatment resources for the juvenile court cannot be emphasized too much. No matter how earnestly a juvenile judge may seek to help a delinquent child who could profit from good services, he is handicapped when the resources of the court and of the community are inadequate. We can understand that a juvenile court judge prefers to keep a child in its own home whenever possible. These delinquents are still young. They need the stability and security of home life. Every community should do its best to keep these children in familiar surroundings and offer them the treatment they require.

Unfortunately many people are inclined to think of the Juvenile Court in terms of criminal procedure. Although it is a court where legal issues are decided and judicial action is taken, the juvenile court is founded on the principle that all children brought before it are wards of the state to be helped and protected rather than punished. It then has the same aims as a Children's Aid Society—the protection of children.

The Juvenile Court is not so much concerned with the specific offence for which the child is brought to the court but rather it is concerned with the child himself. Why is this particular child delinquent? What needs to be done to remedy the conditions that gave rise to his behaviour? These are some of the questions the juvenile court seeks to answer.

TRAINING SCHOOL.

Some boys and girls can be dealt with in no other way than by sending them to a Training School. They may have shown by their conduct that they need close supervision that they can't get at home or in a foster home. Children should be sent to the Training School only after careful study and only after the judge is sure that the treatment approved by the School will answer the child's needs better than anything else available.

Most delinquent boys and girls are sent to the training school as a last resort. Judges sometimes are forced to send them to these schools regardless of their needs, simply because of lack of probation service, or clinical facilities and of such other facilities in our communities. The Training School should not be a Catch All but unfortunately it is in many cases.

The programme of the Training School is to re-educate not to punish children. The Training School must attempt to provide what the home and community has failed to do. Let us remember that the Training School gets the communities' failures.

PREVENTION.

What can we do to keep our children out of trouble? Or even better what can we do to give these youngsters a good healthy early life that will help them grow up to be mature and responsible adults? We have learned a lot, working with young people who have gotten in trouble with the law, about why children become delinquent. But we cannot find any one cause for them all becoming delinquent. We can single out certain conditions that crop up either alone or in combination that are factors in delinquency—bad relationship with parents, slum environment, broken home life, economic insecurity,—these are some of the conditions that seem to be at the root of the problem. Children who are neglected or unwanted in early life often never learn to feel respect and affection for other people—a child who starts out with a social or economic handicap may easily come to feel unfairly treated, hemmed in, with resentment to authority.

Such children have to take out their feelings in some way. Often it is by anti-social behaviour. Sometimes it is secret, as in stealing. Sometimes it is open and violent as in destruction of property or even by assault upon other people.

The best way then to prevent juvenile delinquency is to make home life and community living so attractive and satisfying to children that they will be practically immune to it. In other words by making our homes and communities better places in which to live we make them poor places for delinquency. How do we go about this. We must all work toward a number of broad goals summarized as follows:

1. Allow no family or child to suffer from want because of economic insecurity.

2. Help parents to understand and care for their children.

3. See to it that adequate housing is available, that children are not brought up in over crowded, impoverished homes.

4. Provide good teachers and schools with programmes that answer the child's individual needs.

5. Give children space to play in and provide reasonable programmes to take care of their leisure time.

6. Provide health services which will make children strong in body and personality.

7. Teach children to live according to a reasonable moral code.

8. Protect children from bad influences in the community that might try to exploit them.

There are many more which might be listed but those listed are all very important.

In order to make an honest effort to prevent delinquency one of the things we must do immediately is look around us and find out about the children in our communities. Where do they live? What kind of school do they attend? What do they do in their leisure time? How many get in trouble with the law? What happens to those who do? What social services are provided for them? What are answers to these questions in your community?

The Retarded Child

A Study of the Development of a Community Effort, and an Outline of a Psychiatric Presentation on Retardation.

I. DAY TRAINING SCHOOL FOR MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN.

By REGINALD CRAIG

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In May, 1952, the Mental Health Committee of the Beta Sigma Phi conferred with G. R. D. Fisher, Psychologist of the Mental Health Clinic, concerning feasible steps for the establishment of a School for Mental Defective Children. At this time, it was felt that the best procedure would be to publicize the need, to make the public aware of the necessity for such an institution. The committee was so informed.

The above-mentioned committee approached the Mental Health Clinic for the second time on November 14, 1952. They were somewhat discouraged over their project of starting the school, as they felt that no positive steps were being taken. It was therefore decided that they should examine the possibility of getting a school room and a school teacher. With regard to the latter, an occupational therapist was considered as a possible substitute, if no satisfactorily trained teacher could be obtained. The Clinic discussed their probable function, if such a school were established, but suggested that it would be better to wait until the afore-mentioned suggestions were carried out. We did stress that we had a long list of Mental Defective Children, who were in need of help, and that the project was of extreme importance to us.

Over the next two months, contact was maintained with the Sorority, for discussion of mutual problems. On January 25, 1953, a meeting was held at the Museum with the Sorority and other interested women's organizations. Mr. Travis Cushing, Guidance Officer of the Board of School Trustees and Dr. O. R. Smith, Director of the Mental Health Clinic, addressed the meeting, regarding the needs of the proposed school. At this time, Mrs. Dearborn, Chairman of the Committee, took a vote as to whether the group was to proceed with this school under their own resources, if no financial aid could be obtained from the Government. The decision was unanimous, in favor of the venture, even though it necessitated using their entire funds.

On February 12, 1953, a meeting was held at Mrs. Dearborn's home, at which representatives of the various Chapters of the Sorority were present. Plans were discussed re opening of the school and a tentative date of March 9, 1953 was suggested. A discussion was held on equipment needed and the teacher, Mrs. Ancy Gundry, discussed her role in the school.

During the months of January and February of 1953, the Clinic had been interviewing prospective parents and children. The group selected were to be between the ages of six and twelve, with an I. Q. of 40 to 70, with no organic disturbances and who were not capable of benefitting from Opportunity Class work. Due to difficulties in finding enough suitable children according to the above standards, however, it was decided to admit those with lower I Q.'s than 40 and also Epileptics, whose seizures were fairly well controlled. Ten children were enrolled in the School and Intelligence Tests and Vineland Social Maturity Scale were administered by the Psychologist of the Clinic in each case. Structuring of the function and purpose of the School involved several interviews with each parent by the Social Worker of the Clinic, Mr. Reginald Craig.

On Wednesday, March 4th, an organizational meeting of parents, Mental Health Clinic Staff, the teacher, Mrs. Gundry, Chairman of the Sorority Committee, Mrs. Dearborn, was held at the Winter Street School, where classes for this school were to be held.

FIRST MEETING

Wednesday, March 4, 1953. At this meeting the role of the school and the purpose of the Wednesday night meetings were explained by the Clinic Staff and teacher, Mrs. Gundry. Mrs. Dearborn, Chairman of the Sorority Committee outlined administrative arrangements, including an announcement that transportation would be furnished by the Red Cross. The parents then introduced themselves, with a brief description of their child and expressed their satisfaction at the opening of the School and their hope for its future accomplishments. A great deal of positive feeling was expressed by each parent during this period.

The meeting was then thrown open for discussion and questions by the parents of the children.

This meeting seemed indicative of beneficial results in the future, both for the parents and the children. It was decided that a Home and School meeting should be held weekly on Wednesday nights for the present and that said meetings would be in the Mental Health Clinic, 5 Hazen Avenue.

On March 9th, 1953, the first classes were held for the children. This small beginning, with only 10 children has grown to include 30; the school budget has increased from $300.00 for the first three months to nearly $10,000 for the current school year.

It is firmly felt that the Group Discussion periods with the Parents has been a major part of the total school program. These parents, like all other parents of retarded children, came into the situation with many strange feelings of fear, shame, suspicion and pessimism.

The first reaction of parents upon realizing that their child is mentally retarded is usually one of understandable horror and grief. They may blame themselves for bringing an unfortunate child into the world. They may wonder what they have done to deserve this affliction. In some instances the parent searches his own life and conscience in order to find some supposed sin of which he may have been guilty. Sometimes he becomes so involved emotionally in brooding over what he imagines is the cause of the child's handicap that as a parent he is entirely unable to plan any real positive help for the child.

The second reaction is frequently one of defense of his own pride. This defense may take many forms, such as over-protecting the retarded child (not letting him do the things he can), treating him like a sick baby, or refusing to believe that he is retarded. Often this defensiveness is based on fear of the gossip of friends or relatives.

Some parents refuse to accept the diagnosis of mental retardation even after the child has been examined by experts. These parents often go from doctor to doctor, from clinic to clinic, trying to find someone who will give them a gleam of hope. In so doing, they lose much valuable time. The chief tragedy is that the child is growing without the steady consistent treatment that he should have in order to make full use of his limited capacity. These defense reactions on the part of parents are quite understandable but they are unfortunate. They stand in the way of doing what is best for the child and for his family.

The following is taken from the Report of the Saint John Mental Health Clinic on the initial period of the Day Training School.

> " The chief topic during the first meetings was a discussion of the parents' feelings toward their mentally retarded children. All expressed great difficulty in accepting the limitations of their children. They told of when they first became aware of the retardation, how they had sought help from numerous doctors, hoping for a cure. Some even went to great expense to have "check-ups" in larger cities. They told of their feelings of guilt and shame, and how they had tried to hide their secret from others. Some still hoped for miracle cures while others were convinced that it was useless. These parents had gained considerable help and understanding by discussing their common problem in the group. They were able to share their experiences with others and so, work through their own problems".

The most heartening conclusion of the four years of the experience with the Day Training School is that the Parents have been emancipated from their own feelings; they are no longer afraid; they mix freely and easily with their neighbours; they are now able to let their retarded children move about the community with them or in play with other children; they are making a positive contribution in the community; and though they are still concerned about these children it is not the type of concern which cripples but which helps the chidlren.

II. OUTLINES OF TALKS GIVEN BY

DR. FRAZIER WALSH

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One of the chief problems in discussing Retarded Children is the fact that there is a wide range of conditions that can be classified under the general term Retardation. These conditions range from Idiots who require continuous supervision and possibly custodial care, to the Moron who may be capable of learning to some extent in the normal school setting. The causes of mental deficiency are not always obvious. Medically we know that there are some conditions, such as German Measles, which if they occur at a specific period during pregnancy may lead to the individual being mentally retarded. It is also known medically that a certain proportion of mental retardation stems from cerebral birth injury and/or infection in the early months following birth. The only case in which heredity has been alleged to play a part is the common or garden variety of mental deficiency, where whole families appear to be moronic or where mental retardation tends to appear in a family without any apparent reason and where there are usually other normal children in the family.

The wide range of conditions included under the term Retardation leads to the problem of where best to apply limited finances and limited personnel so as to obtain the best possible results from the resources available. Some people advocate institutions for the grossly Retarded Child whilst others, like myself, believe that we should start at the other end of the scale with opportunity classrooms in the larger schools where the high grade defective can receive as much learning as he is capable of absorbing. In general I believe that all children are better cared for in a home environment rather than in an Institution. We find this exemplified dealing with non-retarded children suffering from emotional problems. If the so called normal child requires a good home atmosphere how much more must the Retarded Child require the influences of home life. For this reason I believe that all defective children should be treated where possible in a home setting. This brings us to the category of children being helped by the Retarded Childrens' Aid Society, that is, children living in the home where they are capable of limited learning in the specialized classroom. In general, they should have a mental age of 4-5 years or better with a corresponding range of intelligence.

In conclusion, my approach to the Retardation problem would be through education with the opportunity classrooms for the high grade defective, special classes similar to those offered by the Retarded Childrens' Aid Society for the medium grade defective and with custodial care to be used only when it is impossible to care for the gross defective in a home environment.

I am intrigued by the Chairman's suggestions that it might be possible to have a "Boarding School" for Retarded Children with specialized classrooms and where those requiring purely custodial care should be handled in a separate wing. This principle applies in mental hospitals where there is a range of patients from good treatment possibilities to the long term patient receiving custodial care. However, we occasionally obtain improvement in a long standing or chronic patient and this is the great advantage of having those patients in a setting where he or she can be moved into more active treatment wards. It is seldom that one can find sufficient "dedicated" staff to man a purely custodial care hospital with gross defectives or long standing mental cases. However, by treating these different groups in reasonably close proximity staff can be working with patients who show reasonable responses and at the same time watch for the slightest signs of improvement in the less optimistic treatment possibilities.

Interdependency of Law and Social Work

By JANET GILLIS,

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"The law touches social work at as many points as social work touches the law". As I read about this subject I found that the points at which social work and law meet are indeed many. Therefore, it is only possible to touch the highlights of some of these for the purpose of this discussion, as any one of them could be a subject for discussion in themselves.

Just as the state was made for society, so law was made for society, for its development, edification and well-being. In the same way, social work has been developed for society, particularly to-day in this expanding economy which is not designed to keep the family unit together. We are no longer dependent on each other in circumstances such as sickness, death, and hunger.

"Law"—John S. Broadway, in "Law and Social Work" says in defining the purpose of law—"Law is a method of making decisions, of disposing finally of controveries, of settling human problems".

The purpose of social work is to meet human needs, (or settle human problems) and the agencies through which the profession carries out its purpose come from the community or society as society sees and wishes to meet this need. In the same way, laws are made as society sees the need and wants them.

Considering the similarity of these two professions and their purposes, it becomes obvious that they will and should be interdependent. Each, in reality, is dependent on the other to achieve the results desired for and by society. One of the most obvious of these is that the administration of any social agency is implemented within a governing framework, this providing the means of carrying out the service and the funds for doing so in the public agency. The private agency exists by virtue of an Act of Parliament, so that from the very beginning, social administration and law are the two necessary means of achieving in unison the social objectives sought.

Many of our actual services in social work are inaugurated by particular Acts of Parliament—e.g. Mothers' Allowances, Social Assistance, Children's Protection Act, Disabled Persons Allowances, Adoption Acts, etc. The social work profession spends a great deal of its time working for what it considers to be improvements to these Acts or services. We may feel the Mothers' Allowance is inadequate, that it should be paid to wider categories of people, we would like to see different legislation in our Adoption Act at times. Sometimes we become discouraged when little progress is made and by the time we obtain, e.g. an increase in Allowances, the cost of living has gone up again and we are almost in the same spot we were previously. Now, perhaps I am speaking only for myself, but I wonder if this process does not lead us into being negative and aggressive in a destructive way, in that we are too ready to condemn the law makers, the legislature, Municipal Councillors, the members of society or whoever has a different point of view from ours. Do we fail to use our professional skills, our body of knowledge about human behavior, in understanding the other's point of view and in helping them to recognize the needs in our society On the other hand, perhaps the lawyers and law makers could be more socially minded, working in the direction toward us.

But more serious than this, does our negative attitude carry over to our relationships with clients who apply and are granted these assistances? Do we help the client in his feeling that this is charity (in the old sense of the word), do we help him to feel that it isn't enough, but more particularly do we have anything by our own very attitude to help the client feel this is not his right; that it is only by his particular situation of poverty, which he is ashamed of, that he can ask and receive this pittance? Do we in fact, and in attitude, conceive of the law as restrictive, as hamstringing and essentially as upholding the arms of force and police power? Do we believe in the rights and dignity of each person?

A. Delafield Smith in his book "The Right to Life" says that "Law in its basic philosophy is quite as liberal and even more sensitive to the need for preserving the freedom and independence of the individual than any other social science". Mr. Smith goes on to say that "Law should teach us that it is the fact of having a legal right to what we need, rather than the fact of having produced it by our own efforts, that furnishes the primary condition for preserving human dignity and independence".

I would like, therefore, to give you this thought for your consideration, that we need to do more or perhaps change our attitude in relation to law. We need to recognize that a firm legal base of individual right and social obligation must underlie the administrative techniques, if social work is to utilize the intention of law and to effectively preserve the rights and dignity of the individual.

Another "point" at which social work certainly touches the law, and this is one of the more direct ways, is in the courts, Juvenile Courts to regular courts. Certainly this is one of the areas where social workers at any rate have difficulty. I think that it is recognized by the Juvenile Courts and some others that the services of a social worker in obtaining a social history, that probation work carried on by trained and experienced persons, makes a contribution in carrying out the real intent of law, and conversely social work needs the law and courts in helping individuals to live within the limits of society and to use these limits constructively. The aim of law is to help settle human problems, to provide limits within which it is to the mutual benefit of all to live, it is the aim of social work surely to do the same thing—to help the individual, when he can no longer do it himself, to live in a way which is satisfying to himself and to the society in which he lives.

I do feel that there still remains a great gap between magistrates, Juvenile Court judges and other representives of the law and social workers. We all know of cases where the person being charged is punished and sentenced only to be released six months or a year later to repeat his crime. Many times this person needs help, treatment to prevent this reoccurrence. We all know of the non-supporting husband and father who ignores court orders, goes to jail, comes out again and nothing is different.

There is a strong case for family courts, with qualified judges, with social workers, psychologists and psychiatrists on the staff. Social Work is equipped and trained to help people rehabilitate themselves, i.e. to help the non-supporting father or mother or husbands and wives who are having marital difficulty in their family life. I think the law profession is recognizing this. The younger lawyers in legal aid clinics are becoming interested and frustrated because law by itself does not solve these problems. No doubt we as social workers have much more to do in letting them know more about what we can do and in showing them when possible good results. There are family courts in Canada, but in the Maritime area we have not been able to either convince people or to find the money for setting these up. It is interesting to observe the developments in the U.S.A. In New York City they have such courts as the Narcotics, Term, Home Term, Girls Term, Adolescent Court, Women's Courts and Homeless Men's Courts. These courts are created to deal humanely with the rebellious adolescent, the narcotic, the maladjusted unhappy wife and husband, the alcoholics, the sexual maladjusted and those others for whom the traditional criminal court has proved to be an unsatisfactory answer. Attached to these courts are psychiatrists, medical doctors and social workers. There are Clinics attached to them for diagnosis and treatment. If the purpose of law is reform, the courts must not be hampered by arbitrary restrictions, but left free to prescribe the course of treatment most likely to help the offender to become a useful member of the community.

There is the whole area of rehabilitation work within the settings of jails and penitentiaries and parole. Some progress has been made and yet there is still a real job to be done on the part of social work in helping society, and law perhaps in particular, to know of the contribution to be made in these areas.

In connection with the courts, there is the problem social workers sometimes face in being subpoenaed to give evidence in instances which have no direct bearing on helping the client—sometimes even after the social workers are no longer employed by an agency. The question of confidentiality which the client expects from the social worker becomes involved here. Should there be protection for social workers and their records in this regard?

Social Work as a profession is reputed to have an edge on what is known as the concept of "teamwork". This method was developed originally in the hospital setting where social workers, doctors, psychologists, etc., work as a team helping the client. The principles of teamwork which have finally evolved are very appropriate for use with any number of professions working for a common goal and it seems as if social work might implement more fully the teamwork principles in its relation to law. Teamwork as defined by Webster's Dictionary, is "work done by a number of associates, usually doing a clearly defined portion, but subordinating personal prominence to the efficiency of the whole" or "to join for a common purpose and work continuously toward a common goal". It would seem as if law and social work could well join for a common purpose and work continuously toward a common goal in many instances.

Here then are some of the teamwork concepts which can be utilized when two professions, in this case law and social work, strive to help—

1. First there must be a basic desire on the part of each to provide the best possible service to the individual.

2. Each must have an understanding of his own function with an acceptance of the limitations of his function. Each must know what his training equips him to do best, e. g. in social work we may know what we would like to see in law, but really most of us know little about the actual mechanics of law-making and we need to be cognizant of how far our training and ability can take us.

3. Each must have a respect for the contribution he can make but also a respect for the other profession and the contribution that its members can make. Inherent in this is the responsibility to learn what other professions consider their functions and contribution.

4. Each needs an ability to convey an understanding of his function and his knowledge to the other. This would seem to be very important for social workers. Do we always use language which is understandable for others, how many in the law profession, in the legislatures, etc., know social work other than for gathering facts about social background, placing children in homes, and handing out money? Have we carried out our responsibility in helping those concerned with law to recognize all the facts of our function and, therefore, to appreciate our particular body of knowledge and skills?

Then there is the question of law making and revision of old laws. Does social work have a part in this? An outstanding example of this in Canada today is the revision of the Criminal Code, particularly the part dealing with capital and corporal punishment. The Canadian Welfare Council did research and made recommendations for abolishment of capital punshment. In connection with this, W. T. McGrath of the Delinquency and Crime Division, the Canadian Welfare Council has written "The Gallows and the Lash" in an effort to arouse public opinion to an understanding and appreciation of the true facts and human values in relation to this problem in keeping with present day scientific research. In this and in many aspects of our criminal law, it would seem that if criminal law is to fulfil its purpose of protecting society from law-breakers, it must provide the maximum opportunity for reforming the individual offender.

In concluding, social workers and lawyers belong to different guilds, each with its own competencies and traditions, each with its own needed services to perform. Communication between them is not always easy, and fruitful co-operation between them can be difficult. Terminologies are at variance, even the values are not precisely the same. Social workers must keep their attention focused on the quality of human experience; lawyers must think about human experience primarily in relation to law. One group may, at times, look askance at the other and accept its pronouncements with reservations. Yet both are colleagues in helping people out of trouble once they are in and of keeping them out of future trouble if possible. To do this, the respective specialities must be appropriately brought to bear from the most effective angle to be found. Clark W. Blackburn in an article "How Can Lawyers and Family Agencies Work Together?" (Highlights, Jan '56, F.S.A.A.) suggests that each needs to give up the faulty habit of attributing to all lawyers or all social workers what one particular one does. Criticism should not be withheld, but it is profoundly important that criticism should not blanket the professional group. He feels there is a tendency of one field to discount the operations of all others or to scorn their practice if it falls short of the ideal. No one can expect the members of other professions to become acquainted and imbued with the cherished traditions and ideals of his own, but one can bow humbly to the fact that without disparity between real and ideal there can be no growth.

Each of our professions needs to recognize the value of the other to complement its own effort. With understanding and knowledge of each others field and skills they can make a splendid team for community betterment. Without such understanding and knowledge, they can have too many differences and so dissipate their individual energies and the end result is poor service to the public and small satisfaction to themselves.